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**THE ROLE OF SPEECH  
IN THE  
Secondary School**

The place and meaning of many aspects of speech training in the total education of youth in secondary schools are described by eminent authorities of the National Association of Teachers of Speech and affiliated national organizations interested in special areas of speech education.

THE CONTENTS OF THIS BULLETIN ARE LISTED IN "EDUCATION INDEX"

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The Role of Speech  
in the  
Secondary School

Prepared for

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SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

By

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH

With the assistance of

THE AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL THEATRE ASSOCIATION

THE AMERICAN SPEECH CORRECTION ASSOCIATION

THE ASSOCIATION FOR EDUCATION BY RADIO

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## *Preface*

**T**HE members of The National Association of Teachers of Speech are grateful for the opportunity of preparing this issue of the *BULLETIN*. Those of us who are most keenly aware of the role of speech in determining the future welfare of all people are always happy to explain what modern speech training is. We also realize that it is by our works that we are most appropriately judged. It is, then, our hope that this *BULLETIN* will not only be read with thoughtful consideration, but that these recommendations will be put into practice. If it should in any real measure help American boys and girls to grow into wiser, happier, and more useful individuals and citizens, we shall be well rewarded for our efforts.

While this Bulletin cannot be said to represent an official view of our organization, or its collaborating organizations, it has been prepared by officially appointed committees for this purpose. We feel confident that the great breadth of official and institutional representation which has been incorporated in these pages includes a substantial cross section of responsible thinking in our fields. We are pleased that we have secured the whole-hearted co-operation of the American Educational Theatre Association, the American Speech Correction Association, and the Association for Education by Radio. Our thanks also go to Pierre A. Tracy, Principal of Wilson High School of Cedar Rapids, Iowa, for his foreword.

Arrangements with The National Association of Secondary-School Principals for the preparation of this issue were made by W. Hayes Yeager, Executive Vice-President of The National Association of Teachers of Speech. He appointed the following persons to serve as the committee to plan and supervise the preparation of manuscripts. Those persons whose names are in bold face type were appointed as a steering committee for the project.

**WILLADELL ALLEN**, Maine Township High School, Park Ridge, Illinois

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After considerable correspondence with members of the committee, the steering committee met to make final plans and to nominate other persons to assist in the preparation of the report. When the final copy was submitted, the steering committee met again to co-ordinate the chapters. The following persons have also contributed to the preparation of this issue of *THE BULLETIN*:

**H. DARKES ALBRIGHT**, Cornell University

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**BOWER ALY**, University of Missouri

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J. DALE WELSCH, Coe College  
HAROLD WESTLAKE, Northwestern University  
WESLEY WIKSELL, Stephens College  
RUTH YATES, State Normal University, Normal, Illinois

To all who have contributed to the development of this volume the members of the committee express their hearty appreciation.

THE OFFICERS OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF  
TEACHERS OF SPEECH  
1945

JOSEPH F. SMITH, *President*, University of Utah.  
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I can think of nothing that is more likely to add cubits to your stature than well-rounded training in public speaking, combined with plenty of practical experience.—Lowell Thomas.

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## Foreword

**T**HE reading of these well-prepared articles by members of The National Association of Teachers of Speech and its affiliated groups in special fields on *The Role of Speech in the Secondary School* has been an interesting experience. The opportunity of presenting the contents of this BULLETIN to fellow members of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals is a most pleasant privilege. We should be very grateful to the speech teachers of this country for its compilation. The clarification of the place of speech in the total education of youth has long been needed.

There are certain concepts of postwar public secondary education which seem self-evident. Among them are (1) we must educate *all* American Youth, (2) we must adjust our curriculums to provide a "general" education, which shall include all that every high-school boy or girl should learn in order to fit him to become a good citizen in a free democracy, and (3) we must adapt that instruction to the individual's specific needs and abilities. No such general education for life can properly leave speech instruction out of the picture.

That the average citizen speaks more words in his daily life than he writes or reads cannot be contested. That the school should devote a proportional amount of time to this skill should certainly follow. That the administrator has long sensed the importance of speech training in personality development has been universal, but his uncertainty about its place in the curriculum has retarded its development. Here then is a wealth of well-prepared suggestions which every principal should study seriously and put into practice in his school.

Speech is too complex an act to be passed over lightly. The assumption that instruction in reading and writing also assures instruction in speaking is a fallacy. To teach a student to read, write, and compute is by no means instructing the whole child. If young Americans are to be fully prepared for this complicated social life we now live, more and more they must be given opportunities to participate in speech learning activities in the schools.

PIERRE A. TRACY, *Principal*  
Wilson High School  
Cedar Rapids, Iowa

# The Bulletin

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**THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF  
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**

PAUL E. ELICKER, *Executive Secretary*

PAUL E. ELICKER, *Editor*

WALTER E. HESS, *Managing Editor*

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

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## PART I.—THE SPEECH CURRICULUM

### CHAPTER I

#### What Speech Can Contribute to High School Education

ANDREW T. WEAVER

*University of Wisconsin*

GLEN G. EYE,

*Principal of University of Wisconsin High School and Director of Practice Teaching*

GLADYS L. BORCHERS,

*University of Wisconsin High School*

A proper speech program in high school is designed to make all boys and girls more effective when they talk. Its primary purpose, therefore, is not to turn out actors and actresses, platform readers, or public speakers; it is rather to help high-school students to participate in social and business conversation, to present skillfully their qualifications when applying for jobs, to speak effectively in buying and selling, to develop skill in reading for the information and pleasure of themselves and others, and to discuss intelligently vital community issues.

This functional emphasis has always been the motivating factor in worthwhile speech training. Thousands of years before there was any English language, speech was considered an important educational discipline in the cultural centers of the world. In the 12th Egyptian dynasty (3000 B. C.) a schoolboy on the Nile wrote into his copybook what have come down to us as the Precepts of Kefmni and Ptah Hotep<sup>1</sup>. This copybook found in the tomb of an ancient Pharaoh is the oldest manuscript in existence. It is a textbook setting forth the principles of effective speech. According to its own language it was for use "in instructing the ignorant in the knowledge of fair speech", and it advises "make thyself a craftsman in speech for thereby thou shalt gain the upper hand. The tongue of man is his weapon and speech is mightier than fighting." Thus, from Ptah Hotep on down through Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintilian to the present moment, speech training has been recognized as of central importance in any well conceived plan of education.

About three decades ago, Charles Woolbert<sup>2</sup>, one of the outstanding modern leaders in education, said, "Speech is one of the most valuable of all disciplines. It is used by more people every day and in more ways and to solve

<sup>1</sup>Budge, Sir E. A. Wallace. *The Teaching of Amen-Em-Apt*. London: Martin Hopkinson and Company, Ltd. 1924.

<sup>2</sup>Woolbert, Charles H. "The Teaching of Speech as an Academic Discipline." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Volume IX, No. 1. P. 2.

more issues than any other human activity which is subject to investigation and learning."

#### SPEECH FOSTERS HUMAN CO-OPERATION

Speech, therefore, is the principal medium through which human co-operation is achieved. It is the means by which the diverse activities of men are co-ordinated for the attainment of common and reciprocal ends. Ordinarily, we do not speak simply to relieve our feelings or to air our views, but rather to awaken response in our fellowmen and to influence their attitudes and acts. By speaking we do not transfer meanings; we *stir up* meanings.

Our speech is successful when it serves the four basic general objectives of education. For all education is one, and departmentalization should exist only for efficiency and convenience. Speech like every other discipline must be integrated with the master aims of education: self-realization, happy human relations, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility.

The most fundamental objective of education is to help students to make the most and best of themselves. A man's first obligation is the maximum use of his natural endowments. No individual can grow up emotionally and intellectually without learning to speak well. As a man refines his speech, he builds his personality, intellect, and emotional balance and control. Man, the speaking animal, cannot rise to his full stature without developing his most distinctive capacity, a capacity in which there is a fusing of four basic elements: (1) mental attitudes and processes, (2) visible action, (3) voice, and (4) oral language. Well-rounded training in these four elements advances a student toward self-realization.

Everyone has experienced the feeling of inadequacy and insecurity which results from participation in conversations when his speech is stumbling and monotonous instead of clear and interesting. A lack of confidence almost always arises from oral participation which is not easily heard or understood by one's classmates and teachers. Many persons have developed distinct feelings of inferiority upon learning that their voices have been labeled unpleasant; their facial expressions and visible mannerisms, antagonistic, disagreeable, or monotonous; their words and sentences, inadequate; and their listening, prejudiced or uninformed. One major purpose of training in speech is to reduce the number of times boys and girls are made unhappy by ineffectiveness in their use of visible action, voice, and language in an attempt to stimulate desired reactions in others. Important steps, then, in becoming one's best self are: (1) to discover one's strong and weak points in speech, and (2) to carry out an intelligent program of self-improvement.

#### SPEECH CONTRIBUTES TO SELF-REALIZATION

Speech education also contributes to self-realization in that it is essentially training in thinking. Speaking is part and parcel of the very mechanics of thinking. In *Prometheus Unbound*, Percy Bysshe Shelley wisely wrote: "He gave man speech and speech created thought." Modern psychologists even look



upon thinking as invisible and inaudible speaking to one's self. Thus, John Dashiell<sup>3</sup> says: "That the speech mechanisms are the thinking mechanisms has long been recognized by psychologists and laymen alike." Sir Richard Paget<sup>4</sup> writes: "Without a language to think in, our thoughts would be as vague and formless as our ideas of quantity would be without the aid of numerals." Wordsworth's remark, preserved for us by Hazlitt, supports the same point of view: "It is in the highest degree unphilosophic to call diction the dress of our thought. It is the incarnation of our thought."

The student who says, "I know what I want to say, but I just can't say it," is not stating a truth. Clarity of thought and clarity of expression are Siamese twins; they are inseparable. The significance of this fact establishes speech training at a level of genuine dignity and importance. There are few ways as effective in improving thinking as is the developing of better speech habits.

Words are handles by which we manipulate our environment. There is a vast difference between a man who has learned to use these word handles efficiently and one who is unable to free himself from his dependency upon the things for which the words may be substituted. The late James Weber Linn<sup>5</sup> of the University of Chicago wrote: "He who thinks he knows what he thinks, but cannot put his thoughts clearly and forcibly into words is mistaken; in fact he cannot think. I see among our graduates, thought suffering from infantile paralysis which regularly prescribed exercises in expression might have cured." The aim is detachment from the object world and reaction in the realm of word symbols. The man best adapted to life is he who has both worlds available to him at his own free option.

As a by-product of training in clear and sound speaking on the one hand and thinking on the other hand, there is developed within the mental blood stream those immune bodies which make individuals resistant to the virus of hypocrisy and sophistry in the speaking and thinking of those who seek to influence them.

Then, too, training in personality is requisite for self-realization, and speech and personality are inextricably interwoven. Most of our impressions of personalities come from what people say and how they say it. If words, tones, and visible actions are left out, little remains of personality. One of our entertaining radio comedians has created a living personality out of a ventriloquist's dummy. Characteristic language and modes of utterances have made Charlie McCarthy seem so real that at times we forget that "he" is carried around in Mr. Bergen's suitcase. To go from the ridiculous to the sublime, Abraham Lincoln's letters and speeches help us to construct a great living

<sup>3</sup>Dashiell, J. F. *Fundamentals of Objective Psychology*. New York: Houghton, Mifflin Co. P. 538.

<sup>4</sup>Paget, R. *Human Speech*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1930. P. 192.

<sup>5</sup>Linn, James Weber, "Oh See Can You Say." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Volume 24, No. 3. 1938. P. 370.

personality but we could realize it much more vividly if we could actually hear and see Lincoln as his contemporaries heard and saw him in their daily association with him.

#### SPEECH TRAINING IS ESSENTIAL

Since speech and personality are so indissolubly interconnected, training in one is training in the other. We affect others more by what we say and how we say it than we do by all the other factors of personality combined. Is it not a perfect paradox to say that an individual's personality is strong, but that his speech is unsatisfactory? Or that his personality is pleasant, but that his speech is disagreeable? A person who can say the right thing at the right time and say it effectively possesses an attractive personality.

We should train students to use the sort of speech which characterizes the kind of person they would like to become. A refined and cultured personality has never been created from crude and indiscriminative speech. An education which does not reflect itself in competent and careful speech somehow has failed to accomplish its purpose. As we take out of the lives of our pupils those habits which mar their techniques of communication, we fit them more satisfactorily into their social environments, and they grow in personal stature. This has been confirmed by recent scientific studies which show definitely beneficial effects of speech training upon personality.<sup>6</sup>

The development of skill in speech is an excellent means of entrance into the life which is in great literature. All reading begins as oral reading. As thinking begins in speaking to ourselves, so silent reading begins with pronouncing aloud the acoustic equivalents of written language.

The capacity for swift and effective silent reading is one of the cornerstones of our entire educational process—and indeed of our daily lives. The principal cause for inefficiency in this secondary type of reading is the inadequacy of the primary reading foundations.

Years ago, Hiram Corson<sup>7</sup> wrote: "A poem is not truly a poem until it is voiced by an accomplished reader who has adequately assimilated it and in whom it has to some extent been born again." In silent reading an appreciation of matter and form must be largely due to the imaginative transference from sight to sound of which Corson writes.

Of all the types of literature, oratory and poetry profit most from the application of the oral interpreter's art. Oratory and poetry, like music, simply cannot exist apart from our auditory experience of them. Rhetoric and poetry

<sup>6</sup>Evans, Dina R. *Changes in Social Behavior and Emotional Attitudes of High-School Students Participating in Dramatic Art in the High School of Cleveland Heights, Ohio*. Ph.D. Thesis (dissertation). The State University of Iowa, 1932.

Moore, W. "Personality Traits and Voice Quality Deficiencies." *Journal of Speech Disorders*. 1939. Vol. 4. Pp. 33-36.

Rose, Forrest Hobart. *Training in Speech and Changes in Personality*. Ph. D. Thesis (dissertation). University of Wisconsin. 1938.

<sup>7</sup>Corson, Hiram. *The Voice and Spiritual Education*. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1908. P. 29.

were in the world a long time before the art of printing was invented. They were kept alive by those who made a business of passing on their treasures from generation to generation by word of mouth. No one but a highly trained musician would think of trying to read a printed musical score silently. We rightly insist that the printed page of musical notations must be translated into auditory experience before we can realize it as music.

In these days of tempest and tumult, we have great need to hold fast to the heritage which is ours in the literature which stands approved by the judgment of the years. We should help students to perfect the oral reading technique which may enable them to tap its resources and enter into the life which pulses within it. We can do this by teaching them to read what is worth reading and to read it well.

#### SPEECH IS ESSENTIAL FOR GOOD HUMAN RELATIONS

Speech training is also important in attaining the second objective of education; namely, good human relationships. Lotze<sup>8</sup> spoke a deep truth when he observed that, "to be is to stand in relation." Those who spend their lives in unpleasant tensions with those about them never really live at all. Our social contacts are the matrix of all our finest experiences. Personality development is an important consideration in self-realization and it is a flower which flourishes best in an environment of effective social contacts. Speech is the very warp of the social fabric; without it society could not exist. Everything which we can do to improve speech results in more adequate social adjustment. Cicero<sup>9</sup> presented that idea when he wrote: "For it is by this one gift that we are most distinguished from brute animals, that we converse together, and can express our thoughts by speech." Robert Louis Stevenson<sup>10</sup> said, "... it is in talk alone that we can learn our period and ourselves. In short, the first duty of a man is to speak; that is his chief business in this world; and talk, which is the harmonious speech of two or more, is by far the most accessible of pleasures. It costs nothing in money; it is all profit; it completes our education; it founds and fosters our friendships and can be enjoyed at any age and in almost any state of health."

Woodrow Wilson called speech a way of living with others, "a meeting of minds." There is no worse situation for most of us than to be isolated. One of the most dreadful forms of punishment is solitary confinement, putting a prisoner off by himself and denying him all human companionship. The lower animals are content with the mere physical presence of others of their kind; but man wants more; he wants the mental and spiritual comradeship which he attains principally through speech.

<sup>8</sup>Thomas, E. E. *Lotze's Theory of Reality*, New York: Longman's Green and Co. 1921. P. 41. Quoted from Lotze's *Outlines of Metaphysics*, 1883, Sec. 10.

<sup>9</sup>Cicero. *On Oratory and Orators*. Translated by J. S. Watson. 1881. Book I, Chapter IX.

<sup>10</sup>Stevenson, R. L. "Talk and Talkers", *Essays*. Modern Students Library. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1918. P. 196.

It is extremely important for high-school students to make the right impression in their face-to-face relationships; to know how to get and hold attention in all speech situations; to communicate effectively with their families at home, to get along with their friends at school, to be able to say what they wish to say in class; to stir up rich and detailed meanings when reading aloud, to make characters in plays live as real people; and to express their convictions effectively in public.

If a successful world organization for peace is finally established, it will be because men and women have understood one another in hundreds of face-to-face meetings, and it will continue to function successfully only so long as world-wide human relationships are satisfactory. Universally understood codes of voice and action will do much to make or break collaboration among nations. More and more as air transportation and radio come into common use, it will be mutually satisfactory talk which will bring lasting peace to our distraught world. The emphasis on human relationships will continue to increase in importance.

#### SPEECH IS VITAL TO THE WORKADAY WORLD

The history of our educational system might be written in terms of the emerging idea that one of its chief concerns should be the teaching of vocational techniques. The older point of view was that we should merely draw out the inborn abilities of the individual and then leave him to his own devices in using his sharpened wits to earn his living. Now we do our best to unfold and furnish those technical skills necessary to the acquiring of the economic goods without which life must be cramped and handicapped. Therefore, every man is perforce a "business man", and every business man has need of speech. Good speech is vital in the workaday world; it is the lubricant which reduces friction in the economic machine.

The average person considers his job, selects his job, applies for his job, and holds his job through speech. In the United States there are more than twenty-thousand different ways of earning a living and effective speech is essential to every one! Not only is it desirable to get and hold jobs that bring good incomes, it is important to invest income wisely. In buying and selling, the need for speech is obvious. It might be interesting to try purchasing a quart of milk at the corner grocery store without speech; buying a new fall or spring outfit without saying a word; or opening an account at the bank in complete silence. Without oral communication, it is almost as difficult to spend incomes as it is to earn them. Telephoning, making appointments, holding interviews and conferences, dictating letters, and delivering formal speeches are all involved in winning success in business. Education for economic efficiency requires speech training.

Finally, there is the high educational function of preparing boys and girls for civic responsibility. It is not enough that we should bring our latent capabilities to full flower, live happily with our fellows, and earn our bread

and butter efficiently. In addition we must carry the obligations of civic living. We are indispensable not only to the body social but to the body politic as well.

How shall the government derive its just powers from the consent of the governed if the people be inarticulate? Free speech produces the only climate in which free government can flourish, and speech is really free only in proportion to its own excellence. The proper function of speech training is not to increase the amount of speech; it is to raise the quality. The teacher of speech is charged with a very special responsibility to see to it that our precious freedom of speech is used wisely. As students are taught the techniques of public discussion, the teacher of speech will warn them that if they deposit nothing but ignorance and prejudice in the crucible of conference, they cannot hope to distil therefrom the precious precipitates of wisdom. He will show them that speech becomes an instrument of the common welfare only when it succeeds in fitting the fragmentary contributions of individuals into the larger mosaic of social and civic thought and action.

Speech teachers should not seek to shift onto the shoulders of other teachers accountability for *what* students say, and concern themselves exclusively with *how* they say it. The *how* must always be evaluated in the light of the *what*. Speech is an indissoluble composite of purposes, attitudes, feelings, ideas, language, voice, and visible action, and any one of these is neglected at the speaker's peril. In the final analysis it is impossible to speak skillfully if one does not speak properly. With other teachers the speech teacher will look to the motives and the character of students. He will do his utmost to educate good citizens who can speak clearly and with power. No lesser aim will do if speech training is to make its maximum contribution to the good-citizenship objective.

#### AIMS OF A SPEECH CURRICULUM

A well-planned speech curriculum aims at organized knowledge of the basic elementary principles of speech and the maximum personal proficiency in the fundamentals of both public and private speech for all students in the high school at all stages of development. Such a curriculum will provide accepted speech achievement levels for those crippled in speech; for those with normal speaking ability enrolled in regular speech classes; for those with normal speaking ability enrolled in classes other than speech; for those with average and superior speaking ability registered for extracurriculum activities; and for all students in all speech situations arising in the life of the school, the home, and the community. The aim should always be to serve the needs of the student at each step of his development. Under the guidance of a speech expert, every boy or girl should receive a diagnosis of his speech abilities with a continuous, directed remedial program, designed to produce a reasonably expressive voice, adequate visible action for stirring up meanings in others, mastery of the American language for immediate needs, and an attitude favorable to successful talk.

Since speech training can make a vital contribution to the total education of high-school students, it follows that the speech teacher must become an integral part of the school's life. The achievement of his proper place on the teaching staff must be determined on the basis of the services to be rendered to students. "Sugar coating" courses in a quest for student popularity, and scheming to secure required courses are beneath the dignity of professional workers.

The speech teacher as a staff member has an unusual opportunity to be a positive influence upon the life of a school. To make the most of this, he must be a co-operative worker. He should be available for participation in all the responsibilities of the staff. Curriculum planning is one of the important functions of all staff members. In planning committees, the speech teacher must present the contributions which his special discipline may make to the total school services. No other staff member can or will present the needs for training in the fundamentals of oral communication. Hence the speech teacher must help in this area of curriculum planning. In discussion on democratic living, the speech teacher must emphasize the contribution which the speech program can make. Through co-operative planning speech can become an integral part of a well-planned pattern of general education. This approach is eminently superior to a one-man or one-department "blitz," in improving the high-school curriculum.

There is a genuine need for speech training in the high-school program. A part of this training should come through the medium of formal course offerings. However, it is obvious that the total contribution of speech development cannot be realized fully in formal courses alone. The preference for separate identity as opposed to the 'tool' contribution of an area or phase of educational experience must be discarded. A subject area may make its greatest contribution by being presented in such a way that other subject areas may be more effective in achieving their appropriate purposes. Speech training must perform such a service in the total educational program.

In most high schools, the speech teacher must organize and supervise a variety of co-curriculum activities. There are many values to be derived from such a program. The speech teacher must consider such responsibilities, not as an extra load, but as an integral part of a speech program which is meeting its full responsibilities. Incidentally, the school administrator may well adopt the same point of view and make load assignments accordingly.

#### GUIDES FOR THE SPEECH TEACHER

Any discussion of the function of a speech teacher as a staff worker would be incomplete without some observations directed to what he should and should not do. In the interest of brevity, these are listed. The speech teacher should not: (1) take an over-specialized view of his subject, *i.e.*, insist that speech is made up of exclusive educational values; (2) campaign for speech activities to the detriment of other worthy elements in an educational program;



(3) assume that speech is a cure-all for educational ills; (4) neglect the non-specialized aspects of his responsibilities; (5) demand extra salary for special activities in the school and community; (6) 'stake-out' the auditorium as his private domain; and (7) blame the administration or other 'competing' departments for the shortcomings of the speech program.

There may be times when the speech teacher exhibits some of these negative characteristics. However, most teachers recognize that real student progress and development are the resultants of positive characteristics. The following list emphasizes positive characteristics. The speech teacher should: (1) work co-operatively with all other staff members; (2) continue to study the literature and practices of his major field and of the general techniques of teaching; (3) work toward the broadest speech program that the school can support; (4) be as concerned with the development of the slow student as with the gifted; (5) be a professional worker in the total school program; and (6) maintain genuine enthusiasm for teaching.

#### WHAT RESEARCH HAS REVEALED

Speech teachers who are willing to meet the challenge of the great contribution which they can make as members of high-school staffs will find that speech training easily maintains its vital position in a program of secondary education. Is there any assurance that because of training in speech a student will become a better speaker? Experiments<sup>11</sup> show that after taking fundamental courses in speech, the speech of students is more acceptable to boards of judges representing a wide variety of occupations. Improvement in general effectiveness was the demonstrated result in different high schools under different teachers.

There is also scientific evidence<sup>12</sup> that through training, voices can be changed in rate, pitch, quality, and volume. For example it is possible to reduce nasality and other unfortunate voice qualities, increase or decrease volume, lower or raise pitch, reduce or speed up rate, and modify resonance.

<sup>11</sup>Borchers, Gladys L. "Direct vs. Indirect Methods of Instruction in Speech." *Journal of Educational Research*. March, 1936. P. 512.

Dieckhoff, Ruth. *An Experiment in Methods of Instruction in Speech*. Master of Arts Thesis. University of Wisconsin. 1939.

<sup>12</sup>Berlage, F. "Der Einfluss von Artikulation um Gehör beim Nachsingen von Stimmklängen." *Psychol. Studien*. 6:39-140, 1910.

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Research<sup>13</sup> shows that individuals can be trained to express their feelings more effectively through visible action; and to use movement and gesture more meaningfully. Moreover, a year's scientifically controlled study<sup>14</sup> with high-school students, proved that oral language could be taught and made to function. Studies<sup>15</sup> also have demonstrated that training in drama helps maladjusted individuals and decreases their neurotic tendencies. These studies are cited to support the contention that speech in all of its elements—mental attitudes and processes, voice, language, and action—can be improved by well-directed training.

#### FUNDAMENTALS OF SPEECH TRAINING

How shall the speech program be organized? Where shall it be placed in the high-school curriculum? In each school these questions must be answered by the administration, the faculty, and the speech teachers. Such issues should be determined by the needs of the students, the size and type of school, the training of the teachers, the general organization of the curriculum, and the educational philosophy accepted by the faculty and students. Marked improvement in speech skills has been achieved through the use of varied programs and methods, but in each case the following fundamental principles have been followed:

1. In improving speech skills it is important to begin early in the life of the child and to continue training at regular intervals until acceptable speech has been achieved.
2. There must be time devoted to speech training *per se*.
3. Real progress results only when both student and teacher understand the purpose of the training.
4. Practice with guidance is necessary in eliminating unfortunate speech habits.
5. Opportunities for practicing improved skills in various school situations in and out of speech classes should be based on immediate needs and interests of pupils.

<sup>13</sup>Blake, W. H. *A Preliminary Study of the Interpretation of Bodily Expression*. Columbia Teachers College, Contribution to Education, No. 574, 1933. 55 pp.

Dusenberry, D., and Knower, F. H. "Experimental Studies of Symbolism of Action and Voice." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. 24:424-437, 1938.

<sup>14</sup>Kaump, Ethel Amelia. *An Analysis of the Structural Differences Between the Oral and Written Language of One Hundred Secondary-School Students*. Ph.D. Thesis (dissertation.) University of Wisconsin. 1940.

<sup>15</sup>Evans, Dina R. *Changes in Social Behavior and Emotional Attitudes of High-School Students Participating in Dramatic Art in High School of Cleveland Heights, Ohio*. Ph.D. Thesis (dissertation.) The State University of Iowa. 1932.

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## PART II.—BASIC SKILLS IN SPEAKING

### CHAPTER II

#### The Program of Basic Skills in Speaking

KARL F. ROBINSON, *Northwestern University*

W. NORWOOD BRIGANCE, *Wabash College*

THE telephone, radio, and talking picture now carry the human voice around the world and have become the most powerful instruments in existence for the stimulation of thought and mass education. Consequently educators ought to face the fact frankly that these three inventions suddenly loosed on the world are going to compel a reappraisal of some of the older methods of formal education that were based on the primacy of the printed page.

Today the mass of people is no longer confined to reading and direct conversation for ideas, information, or thought stimulation. They hear also the many voices from Hollywood, Washington, London, Rome, and Moscow. For better or worse, they are more familiar with Fibber McGee and Town Meeting of the Air than with Dante or Gibbon. Even Mark Twain is known from seeing and hearing Tom Sawyer on the screen as well as from meeting him between the covers of a book. Our dim memories of textbook pages of history are reinforced by radio's *Cavalcade of America*.

These instruments of modern science which have brought drama, good and poor, to the rural crossroads of America exert a constant influence on the operation of democratic government. They profoundly influence the choice of democratic rulers. They are instruments that leaders, near-leaders, and would-be leaders use constantly in their quest for profit and power.

We do not mean to imply that these inventions for distant projection of the human voice have created an entirely new force in the world. They have not. They have rather extended and intensified the use of the oldest tool possessed by man; namely, human speech, a tool by which man develops civilization, transacts business, and deifies his Maker. As modern life has grown more complex the uses of this tool have become more important and complex, quite apart from the impact of the telephone, radio, or talking picture. In American frontier days, it is true that political and intellectual leaders were men skilled in speech; but the mass of frontier people needed only skill with the gun, the axe, and the plow. Good speech to them was no material asset. Today the frontier has gone. Skill with the gun and axe are no longer required for earning a peaceful living, and fewer people are using a plow. The descendants of the silent frontiersmen are now selling goods, services, and ideas, occupations requiring specialized techniques of speech. And because the schools have failed to give this training, people have sought it, pathetically at

times from exploitive and superficially taught evening classes, and even through remote control correspondence courses in speaking.

Not only has speech training become important because the human voice can now travel around the world, but also because specialized forms of speech have become the everyday tool of the man and woman on the street. *If the schools are to train citizens for effective living in a democracy, they must train the youth of America to use the basic and special forms of speech with some degree of skill and with a high degree of social responsibility*<sup>1</sup>.

Obviously, however, school training cannot begin with the latest and most complex forms of speech communication. It must start with the simpler forms and must also include the "finger exercises." It is fallacious to assume that because all human beings *talk*, they therefore possess basic speaking skills. To begin with, ten per cent of the pupils in school are speech defectives. That is, they have deviations from normal speech that are conspicuous and interfere with success in life. Gradually this ten per cent is being included in special education, along with the blind, the crippled, and the hard-of-hearing. In some states this movement is tardy and slow-moving, but, at least, it is under way. In other states it has moved rapidly. Unhappily, it is usually easier to convince boards of education, and educators, that the fewer most needy should be helped than it is to convince them that the many not so obviously needy—but definitely needy none-the-less—should also be helped. The result is that the forty per cent with *inadequate* speech (not actually defective but positively inadequate) need training in basic speech and that one hundred per cent need training which they commonly do not get in those forms of speech that have become increasingly important in modern life. A program of basic skills in speaking should include these objectives:

1. The speech needs and abilities of every student should be tested and diagnosed.
2. Students who possess speech defects such as stuttering, lisping dialects, or speech maladjustments should be provided opportunities for correction.
3. The great group having "inadequate" and normal speech should be given the chance to profit from systematic education in such fundamental speech processes as:
  - A. Adjustment to the speaking situations of everyday life so that social adaptations of this type can be made without fear and with confidence and poise.
  - B. Development of a speaking personality characterized by attitudes of sincerity, friendliness, and communicativeness.
  - C. Skill in developing a subject, in using one's ideas, and in knowing how to find sources of information that will extend one's ideas.
  - D. Study of the audience which is being addressed.
  - E. Organization and arrangement of content to insure the desired response from the audience.
  - F. Mastery of an effective technique of delivery.
  - G. Expressing one's ideas in simple, acceptable, and effective spoken language.

<sup>1</sup>Hedde, Wilhelmina G., and Brigrance, W. Norwood. *American Speech*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1943. Preface and Chapter I. See also the *Teachers Manual* for this text.

- H. Articulating and pronouncing words intelligibly.
- I. Using the voice effectively.
- J. Communicating ideas with expressive and well-co-ordinated gestures and movements.
- K. Cultivation and acquisition of suitable listening habits that will enable the individual to give respectful attention to speakers for purposes of learning, evaluating, and criticizing.
- 4. Students who are *superior* in basic speech skills should be given opportunities to develop special skills directly associated with their life interests, and in keeping with their needs and abilities.
- 5. Basic speaking skills should be implemented through a balanced program of functional speech experiences. These should be directly related to school and community problems, practical situations, and educational experiences which form a framework for participation in a democratic society.
- 6. Evaluation of growth and development in basic speech skills.

In order that the implications of these objectives may be better understood they are herewith elaborated in some detail.

#### 1. *Testing and Diagnosis of Speech Needs and Abilities.*

Speech abilities vary so widely that it is almost useless to attempt instruction without first testing each student in order to learn what his needs are. Students can be tested in the following ways:

- A. An articulation test on individual speech sounds.
- B. A voice test which will reveal the use of pitch, time, quality, and loudness.
- C. A short speech before the class which will allow a trained speech teacher to diagnose the student's adjustment, ideas, ability to organize, use of language, and bodily activity.
- D. Pencil and paper inventories which give the student's experience and his attitudes towards speaking.
- E. Recordings which allow further analysis and the opportunity for the student to hear himself and discuss his needs with the instructor.

Although testing is discussed fully in Chapter 14, this preview is offered because diagnosis comes first in any program of basic speech skills. The teacher must be able in the first instance to classify as *speech defectives*, those students who need clinical work and individual help in most instances; as *inadequate*, those who need improvement and training in basic skills; as "*normal*," those who could profit from further instruction; and as *superior or especially talented*, those who are not in need of further work unless their interests indicate it.

The program of training, class organization, schedule, and type of instruction is thus closely related to efficient testing and diagnosis. A speech rating could well be included on the permanent school record of each student, along with the IQ, reading, arithmetic, or mathematics test score, and health picture.

#### 2. *Correction of Speech Defects and the Basic Skills Program.*

As a general rule, boys and girls with speech defects need individual training, and for this they require the services of a competent clinician. Such disabilities as stuttering, a voice problem of long standing, or a severe articulatory handicap, obviously need to be corrected before even normal life is possible.

While the students are taking corrective training, however, they can also be given instruction simultaneously on the usual basic speech skills. Chapter 5 develops the correcting of speech defects more fully.

3. *Basic Skills in Speaking to be Included in a Systematic Training Program.*

A. *Adjustment to the speaking situations of everyday life.*

People are not "naturally" able to face the speaking situations thrust upon every social business or professional leader in modern democratic life, or even those thrust upon the applicant or salesman. For most of them such situations are ordeals from which they flinch and to which they may never learn to adjust themselves adequately. The waste of time and patience by people on whom emotionally ill-adjusted and nervous speakers afflict themselves is a positive economic and intellectual loss. "It makes me nervous to look at him" or "He mumbles so I can't understand what he says" are the constant complaints of people who are compelled to listen to such persons. Yet these persons are products of the public schools. They went out of school untrained in the use of one of the most common, everyday tools of life; namely, the ability to stand before a group of people without fidgeting and to talk without mumbling. This is a definite educational discipline, one for which there are definite techniques of training. A well-organized program of basic speech skills would offer this opportunity to every student.

B. *Skill in developing a subject, in using one's ideas, in discovering sources of information, and in recording information.*

Speaking, like writing, is an intellectual endeavor. A speaker ought to be taught early in his career to accept full responsibility for every minute of other people's time he consumes. If one writes poor material, editors can refuse to print it or readers can refuse to read it. But with a speaker the audience is caught. It cannot, or does not, walk out. It must sit and endure him; hence, the speaker's maxim: "Be accountable for every word you utter." There are definite steps in this endeavor: (a) State the purpose or objective of the speech with respect to the particular audience being addressed. Does the speaker wish to inform, to interest, to stimulate, to convince, or to persuade them? He must also determine the specific response that he wishes the audience to make with respect to this purpose. This becomes the central idea for the talk; (b) Define the terms of the subject so that both the speaker and audience understand their meaning; (c) Break the central idea down into its principal sub-divisions and supporting ideas.

(1) *Using the library.*—After the student has made his preliminary analysis of the subject the next logical step is that of securing materials. Even though the speaker may have considerable experience from which to draw, invariably he must use the library as an important source of information. Students should, therefore, learn to use library facilities intelligently so as to become as self-reliant as possible in the process of gathering information about the subject. They should learn what sources to consult, where they are located



in the library, and should develop a systematic and effective method of going about the search for materials. Every student should build such a set of work habits as a foundation for the entire high-school, college, or occupational activities. The program in basic skills in speaking can easily include such a responsibility for instructing students in this skill.

(2) *Observation and experience.*—Inevitably one starts with experiences as a basis for any investigation. However, high-school students should not overlook the resources found in direct observation of conditions bearing upon a subject. In areas dealing with problems which one can observe first hand in the community or in the immediate geographical vicinity, there is always much valuable material. These sources should be used to the fullest extent.

(3) *Interviews, conversation, and letters.*—Another excellent mode of training students, a method useful throughout life, is that of talking with authorities or experts. The habit of writing letters to such persons should be cultivated.

(4) *Radio programs.*—Students listen regularly to radio programs. By the time they have reached the age of high-school students they are mature enough to begin raising the level of programs to which they listen. Assignments can be made to radio newscasts, speeches, discussion programs, and certain dramatic presentations that offer significant materials for analysis, discussion, and speech information.

(5) *Recording materials.*—High-school students, however, usually fail to gain the maximum benefit from investigated sources because they do not know how to take good notes, or in some way analyze and record materials. At this stage of development, there should be a formal method of preserving material, such as:

- a. *Being systematic.*—(a) Taking notes upon cards or uniform-sized notebook paper; (b) being sure to indicate on each card the exact source of the material, the general subject investigated, and the specific subdivision of it to which the information applies; (c) taking notes in ink because they are much more permanent and more easily read than pencil notes; and (d) spacing notes so that they can be easily read. An outline scheme is helpful.
- b. *Being careful and accurate.*—Reading carefully and noting the correct and exact point to be retained. Not being satisfied with half-done, slipshod work.
- c. *Being adequate.*—By this is meant, taking ample notes without copying down everything. Record the basic ideas, the significant facts which are used to explain, support, or illustrate them. Learning to be able to see the forest as well as the trees.

Best of all, students should be taught to develop a system based upon these broad suggestions which works for them and gets results. When this is done, they have made an important step in learning to be efficient workmen, and ultimately better-informed, successful speakers and citizens.

C. *Analysis of the audience to be addressed.*

High-school students are mature enough to be taught that every speaker must keep in mind a response desired of the *listener* or *audience*. They should be taught to make further analysis of the audience as they proceed to develop content of a thought.

The audience is a group of human beings who have experiences, beliefs, prejudices, and knowledge. Some study of this audience is essential if the speaker is to succeed in impressing them or in securing a desired response. A number of questions can point the way to such an analysis:

(1) Are they *interested* in this subject? If they are not directly interested, how can interest be aroused?

(2) What do they *know* about this subject? If they know little, the speaker must explain its background in detail. If they know much, he can omit this explanation. He must give them enough information to understand the subject, but not enough to tire them.

(3) What is their *attitude* toward the subject? If they are friendly, he can move along easily through it. If they are hostile, he must proceed cautiously.

(4) Finally, the "*springs of action*" which impel all mankind must be considered. People are very sensible creatures, although not always logical. That is to say, they do many things which seem foolish if explained logically, but which are very sensible if explained in terms of their wants. In fact, most things people do are done because they want something. Every speaker should know something about these wants. There are four groups of them which influence people's action: protection, possessions, social standing, and sensory pleasures.

D. *Organization and arrangement of content to insure the desired response from the audience.*

Having thought through the subject and having secured the necessary information for the speech, the young high-school speaker is now ready to learn how to organize and arrange materials for presentation. With careful analysis, efficient investigation, and systematically recorded materials, this part of the job will be considerably simplified. Every talk has three parts: the introduction the body, and the conclusion. In arranging materials the young speaker should now learn how to use outlines as an aid to the organization, and he should keep in mind the essential divisions of the speech as he proceeds to make his outline. This type of outline is aptly summarized:<sup>2</sup>

Many types of outlines are used for speeches. Each type has its place.

There are outlines which are based on the order of the topics and outlines which are based upon grammatical structure. Examples of this first type are (1) the chronological outline, in which the topics are arranged in order of time; (2) the logical outline, in which the sequence of heads and sub-heads is determined by reason; (3) the so-called "topical outline," in which the topics are marshalled in

<sup>2</sup>*Ibid.* Pp. 169-172.

any sequence depending on a wide variety of factors. A knowledge of these types is helpful, but not so helpful to the public speaker as a knowledge of types of outline which are determined by their grammatical structure. Outlines may be made up of a more or less related, coherent series of words, or of phrases, or of sentences listed in some form that indicates their grammatical structure. These types are the *simple-list*, *key-phrase*, and *complete-sentence outline*.<sup>3</sup>

The simple-list type is a list of words each of which suggests to the speaker a major topic. This type of outline is most helpful for a *seasoned* speaker. It usually is not best for the *beginning* speaker. The key-phrase outline is a valuable aid to the speaker because of its power to impress vividly upon his mind through the use of concrete words what he wishes to say. Probably most usable of all for the beginning speaker is the complete-sentence outline because it contains a more complete array of all of the content and information which he wishes to present. As he develops proficiency in delivering his talks before the class, he may use the key-phrase or topical outline with considerable success.

There are two types of vocabularies in common usage, the written vocabulary and the spoken vocabulary. They overlap, of course, but their boundaries are not the same. The writer considers the effect of the words on the eye of the reader. The speaker considers their effect on the ear of the listener. The one relies on sight, the other on sound.

High-school students spend years learning to write. When they begin to shape thoughts on paper, in an essay or an outline, they put down words intended for the eye. When they stand before an audience to speak, they do not use the language of conversation, the language they have learned at home or on the high-school playground. They use the language of the classroom, the written language they learned to put on paper. It is the language they put on paper when they made the speech outline. It is the language they rehearsed and fixed in mind while preparing the speech. The result is that their speeches do not sound like *them*. They are formal and "correct" but stilted and lifeless.

One hears this not only from the untrained high-school speaker, but also from the mass of local speakers, who, likewise untrained in high school or college, nevertheless, cannot escape having to preside or speak at community affairs. The more carefully they prepare, the more stilted is their language and the more immature it sounds. A basic phase of any high-school speech program, therefore, is to train students to use the terse and tough-fibered words of everyday speech, not dialectal speech, not the slang of the streets, but the straightforward colloquial speech of educated people.

E. *Expressing ideas in effective spoken language.*

F. *Mastery of an effective technique of delivery.*

True, it is possible to *read* a speech from manuscript, memorize it word

<sup>3</sup>Sarett, Lew, Foster, William T., and McBurney, James H., *Speech—a High-School Course*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1943. Pp. 181-185.

for word, or even speak *impromptu* (without preparation). However, *extemporaneous delivery is not desirable*.

Effective delivery of a speech requires a definite technique, if not indeed a discipline, for a speech put down on paper is not yet a speech at all. It must be transplanted to the minds of the audience. This is called "delivering a speech," but literally no speech can actually be "delivered." One can deliver a loaf of bread by putting it in a delivery truck and hauling it to the consumer's kitchen. It is the same loaf of bread all the way. Not so with a speech, for, in the so-called delivery, a speech passes through *seven different media*:

- (1) It is first a *thought* in the speaker's mind.
- (2) It next becomes a neurogram in his nervous system, roughly like the electric waves that transmit a telegram.
- (3) The neurogram sets into motion certain *muscles* of the speaker's body, primarily speech muscles.
- (4) The muscles convert the thought into *sound waves* that speed invisibly toward the listener.
- (5) The sound waves set up a *mechanical action* in the listener's ear.
- (6) The mechanical action in the ear is turned into a *neurogram* in the listener's nervous system.
- (7) From the neurogram arises the *thought* in the listener's mind.

In any one of these seven steps of "delivery," the speaker's idea can become confused or distorted. The process cannot be simplified by reading a speech, because to carry meaning by reading is one of the most difficult of all arts. Unbelievable as it seems to the layman, experimental evidence shows that audible reading without adequate pauses, groupings, and informing inflections will at the most never carry to the listener more than thirty per cent to fifty per cent of the full thought. As an everyday process reading is most unsatisfactory and should be a medium reserved only for the extremely skillful.

Effective everyday speaking must be *extemporaneous*. It is not *impromptu*, but extemporaneous, with the ideas refined and processed through an outline, with outline fixed in mind—perhaps even talked out in practice—but without the actual memorizing of words. This is an accomplishment not learned in a week or a month, but it must be learned before a speaker can truly make a speech. It can be mastered by high-school students.

G. *Articulating and pronouncing words intelligibly.*

H. *Using the voice effectively.*

There are about twenty-five vowel and diphthong sounds in the English language. The average person pronounces half or two thirds of them reasonably well and turns the remainder into sour notes. There are approximately one hundred combinations of two consonants in the English language. The average person can get by with perhaps two thirds of them. The remainder are slurred. There are fifty-six combinations of three or four consonant sounds in the English language. The average person articulates one fourth of them intelligibly. The other three fourths are gone with the wind.

From the standpoint of basic skills in speaking, it should be pointed out that if speech is to *communicate ideas* there is a definite limit to the proportion of sounds a speaker can slight, omit, distort, or substitute. Effective speech is intelligible and clear-cut. Speech sounds, if they carry full meanings, must be reasonably correct phonetically. Pronunciations, if they do not distract from thought, must follow current usage. A speaker cannot use uneducated pronunciations, nor earmark his speech by slovenly articulation, and expect listeners to grasp his thought in spite of such distractions or to give weight to it even though they do grasp it in part. Speech, like clothes and social manners, is an index of personality and culture. As a New York professional woman tartly remarked: "We have to be careful in hiring employees. Their clothes tell only where they bought them, but their speech tells who they are."

Such a standard, hardly thinkable in pioneer America, is a product of our coming of age, hastened inevitably by the generally high standards of speech heard in talking pictures and over the radio. The schools systems of Europe faced it in the last century, or even before. The school system of America, caught off guard, is now trying to adjust itself to the demand that students be taught that as a pure business asset, to say nothing of social considerations, there are "dividends in diction."

I. *Communicating ideas with expressive, well-co-ordinated bodily activity.*

A second fundamental, also an important means of communicating ideas, is bodily action. Long before men uttered speech sounds they used gesture, movement, and posture as methods of revealing thoughts. A great percentage of communication today is through such visible signs. One uses the hand, the arm, the shoulders, the face, and the eyes very effectively to reveal to others what he thinks and feels. These uses are called *gesture*. A speaker demonstrates by moving from one place to another while speaking, or by moving in certain directions, various meanings he wishes to convey. This is *movement*. Moreover, he similarly reveals thoughts and feelings by the way in which he stands, sits, or holds the body while walking. This is called *posture*. All of these types of bodily action are significant in speaking before an audience.

The human race uses reasonably well this code of bodily communications, so long as it is confined to private talk and is done spontaneously. But stand this same lively and animated talker before a *group* and he becomes a turtle withdrawn in his shell or a fidgeting phenomenon on display. In public, he must learn all over again how to be a human being, how to use the centuries-old code of talking with his body. A speech program should make this re-education in bodily talk a part of its program of basic skills<sup>4</sup>.

J. *Cultivation of suitable listening habits that will enable the individual to give respectful attention to speakers for purposes of learning, evaluating, and criticizing.*

Some time has been given in discussing what skills a *speaker* should de-

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<sup>4</sup>Weaver, Andrew T., and Borchers, Gladys L. *Speech*. Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1946.

velop in basic speech processes. Such a discussion would not be complete without a consideration of *listening* as a significant skill. From the point of view of the speaker, it is decidedly helpful to develop the ability to listen to *himself* in order to check upon articulation, pronunciation, use of voice, and choice of language, as well as to evaluate his effectiveness before an audience. Under ordinary conditions, this is likely to be a highly subjective judgment. With recording equipment of various kinds, including disc, tape, and wire recorders, however, it is possible for one to become aware of his own speech needs and assets, as well as to develop a more objective opinion upon any job of speaking he does. He needs only to play back, listen, and self-criticize. If recorders are not available, he can still train the ear to aid in sound discrimination, in his use of the voice, and other aspects of delivery.

The primary need for training in listening, however, rests on larger ground. In school and out, people listen to teachers and preachers, to newscasters and propagandists, to actors and speakers. Some listen only to escape to a dream world; but some can be taught, or be stimulated to learn, to listen critically to information and ideas, to assess, and to evaluate. Such listening cannot be haphazard. In lecture, discussion, radio, or talking pictures the very act of learning rests on the ability to listen intently, absorb accurately, and recall what is carried by the medium of sound. What is not instantly grasped will rarely be repeated and retained.

*Yet good listening habits are invaluable for people who weigh, evaluate, do any critical thinking, or take any action about what they hear.* Gullible adults are too often careless listeners. Easily-swayed high-school youngsters too often hear only part of what is said and jump to conclusions without any period of critical reflection. Unless we stress respectful listening to others, courteous listening for the sake of fellow auditors, accurate listening for the purpose of learning, and critical listening in the name of thoughtful consideration and sane action, we are likely to produce generation after generation of high-school boys and girls who hear the piper's notes and follow blindly.

4. *Students Who Are Superior in Basic Speech Skills Should Be Given Opportunities to Develop Special Skills Directly Associated with Their Life Interests, and in Keeping with Their Needs and Abilities.*

Although the tendency may be to give more attention to the inadequate and "normal" student in a basic skills program, persons with *superior* ability should not be overlooked. They are to become leaders in law, government, business, and education, artists in the theatre, skilled lecturers, or persons interested in professional radio. They should be challenged to develop their abilities for ends that are personally enjoyable and useful, and which at the same time give opportunity to refine, polish, and add special skills. Creative work, stimulating projects in public speaking, discussion, interpretation, the theatre, and radio should belong principally to them. Programs, interscholastic meets and competition, and community assignments which need their talent



should be theirs. They can also be used with some advantage in the program to assist in tutoring those whom they can help.

5. *Basic Speaking Skills Should Be Implemented Through a Balanced Program of Functional Experiences.*

Schools and communities provide rich opportunities for implementing the program in basic speaking skills with functional experiences. The school assembly and the classrooms in speech, English, social studies, science, art, music and vocational studies offer a multitude of speaking opportunities. Conducting the affairs of clubs, student councils, school committees, ticket-selling, and publicity campaigns present further specialized kinds of situations for speaking. Many communities have forums and symposiums planned with the co-operation of the secondary-school principal or the speech teacher, and sometimes conducted by them. These projects present other highly practical and interesting possibilities. Church groups, 4-H clubs, and young people's organizations in small and large cities afford another group of potential speaking situations for high-school youth. The school trains a student to take his place in these spheres of activity which should be utilized to the fullest extent during the in-school training period in basic speech skills for secondary-school students.

6. *Evaluation of Growth and Development in Basic Speech Skills.*

Analysis and diagnosis initiated the basic skills program. It is equally important that *continued* and *final evaluation* and testing of growth should also be an integral part of it. This is essential so that progress can be measured, so that teaching programs and procedures can be planned, so that defective, inadequate, normal, and superior students in the program can be respectively dismissed or given further work which will keep pace with the development that has been accomplished. Testing should, therefore, be a continuing function. It should be directed into three channels: (1) individual speech testing and evaluation; (2) group evaluations; (3) checks and constructive criticisms of the program itself as it is carried forward.<sup>5</sup>

This discussion of basic skills in speaking presents an outline of what is considered a sound program. In some schools it is in operation; for the most part, however, the present finds only certain aspects of it accomplished. All students from the elementary school through college have a rightful claim to continuing, developmental training in the classroom in basic speech skills.

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<sup>5</sup>See Chapter 14, *infra*.

### CHAPTER III.

## Voice and Articulation Improvement

JEANETTE O. ANDERSON and GILES W. GRAY

*Louisiana State University*

**I**N a recent article in *The English Journal*,<sup>1</sup> Lauren Brink argues that the objectives in the teaching of English and speech are identical. The author's position seems to be based on the idea that all there is to speaking is "decent grammatical structure," "smooth transitions," and "good organization," all of which are important in exactly the same degree as they are important in writing.

No sensible teacher of speech will deny that these are points to be stressed in the development of skill in speaking. Effective use of language requires a reasonable adherence to certain rhetorical principles. But this is not the whole of speech, by any manner of means; there are some fundamental differences which no amount of rationalizing can eradicate. Probably the most basic of these differences, and also the most obvious, lies in the difference between the *media* of expression. The speaker must not only use "decent grammatical structure," "smooth transition," and "good organization;" he adds to these the factor of voice and action, with which he is able to modify the meanings of his words almost at will.

Twenty-three years ago Woolbert,<sup>2</sup> writing of the differences between speaking and writing, pointed out that whereas writing includes "*three* clear-cut processes"—thought, language, and typography—speech includes "*four* processes"—thought, language, voice, and action. "They differ by a gap so wide that not to appreciate the full extent of it is to risk erring egregiously." That there is a wide overlapping no one can deny; they both make use of language to express thoughts and to arouse meanings in the minds of others. But writing makes use of a static, permanent, fairly fixed medium, while speaking, by the use of voice and action, adds to and makes more specific the language employed.

Some appreciation of the significance of the voice as a means of communication may be gained from the many direct conferences held by the leaders of the chief United Nations during the recent war. Writing can go only so far in settling differences of opinion; it took a trip by Harry Hopkins to Moscow to prevail upon Premier Stalin to modify his stand on the question of the veto rule in the San Francisco Conference. This is no attempt to belittle the importance of writing; the invention of printing was one of the greatest events in the history of the world. But it is to point out that writing and speaking are

<sup>1</sup>Brink, Lauren L., "The Inseparability of English and Speech." *The English Journal*. Vol. XXXIV, No. 5. 1945. Pp. 269-271.

<sup>2</sup>Woolbert, C. H., "Speaking and Writing—A Study of Differences." *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education*. Vol. VIII, No. 3. 1922. Pp. 271-285.



not the same, and that the objectives in the teaching of English, worthy though they are, are not identical with those in the teaching of speech. It is further to point out that in the affairs of the world, in which we must all take our place, the spoken word has a force and a power that is not possessed by the written. If the pen is mightier than the sword, the tongue is mightier than either!

Our concern in this chapter is with the added element of voice. The central point to be made is this: since most people will, during their entire lives, speak far more than they write, it would seem but reasonable, in view of the present educational insistence upon the inclusion in the curriculums of usable disciplines, that a proportionate amount of attention be paid to that mode of communication which is the most widely and extensively employed. Furthermore, since one of the distinctive elements in speech, as compared with writing, is the voice, it would seem equally reasonable that some attention be paid to the development of a certain degree of proficiency in the use of the vocal factor.

Unfortunately, very few people make any adequate use of the voice in communication. This inadequacy may be attributed to a number of causes. First, the parents, from whom the child takes his first lessons in speaking, which too frequently present inferior models for imitation. Second, from the early grades through the high school so much emphasis is placed on learning to write that all too often neither incentive, encouragement, nor opportunity is provided for the child to learn correct habits of speech. Third, the stress laid upon rapid silent reading—all very fine in its proper place—leaves no time for oral reading, upon which depends so much of the appreciation of literature. Fourth, too many administrators apparently feel that since the child has already learned to speak, after a fashion, by the time he starts in the first grade, any work aimed at the specific improvement of that skill is so much wasted effort, and hardly worth the time.

Training in voice and articulation are important for a number of reasons. First, a good voice can make the meanings of the speaker more specific. "Done by tones of voice in speaking . . . (the word may mean anything the speaker has skill to make it signify.)"<sup>3</sup> The current interest in semantics is evidence of the fact that in our use of language we often fail to make our meanings clear. This failure is not always due to choice of word; it may also be due to an inappropriate manner of utterance of that word, a misplaced emphasis, to a voice so nearly inaudible that the word is not even clearly heard at all. As has been said, good speech should do more than make it easy for the hearer to understand; it should make it impossible for the listener to misunderstand. Much of the understanding we have of the language we hear is directly dependent upon the manner in which that language is uttered. A flexible, expressive voice, therefore, should be one of the objectives in speech training.

<sup>3</sup>*Ibid.*

Second, a voice should be clearly audible in any moderately sized room. There should be no excuse for any kind of speaking that cannot be heard under normal conditions by those for whom it was intended. Insistence on easy audibility should be the rule, not only in classroom speeches, dramatic productions, readings, but in the everyday class recitation, whether it be in algebra, history, or physics.

Third, speech should be easily intelligible; that is, it should be at all times so distinct that, again, misunderstanding is impossible. This distinctness demands much attention to clear articulation and to the accurate and adequate production of the sounds of speech in their proper sequences as they occur in spoken language. It has been experimentally determined that sixty-five per cent of the intelligibility of speech is due to the correct articulation of the consonant sounds. If these sounds are slighted, the speech becomes mumbling and indistinct, and the meanings which the speaker desires to arouse in his listeners do not ensue. Clear articulation, then, is another worth-while objective in the development of effective speech.

These are not the only reasons why a program of voice and articulation improvement should be developed in the schools. They will serve to indicate that a very real program exists here, one that demands attention of a student if he is to live his most effective life.

It may be felt that, after all, it is only an insignificant number of pupils that stand to profit appreciably from such training. The evidence, accumulated by a number of surveys, indicates, on the other hand, that in every school there are a great many who actually need specific training. Carhart reporting six years ago,<sup>4</sup> concluded that in the high schools of Illinois there were more than 30,000 speech defectives and "... with every fifth Illinois high-school student needing rehabilitation, there exists a severe problem." In 1925 Stinchfield<sup>5</sup> reported that eighteen per cent of the freshman class at Mt. Holyoke were defective in speech and another nineteen per cent were required to take speech work during their sophomore year. Dina Rees Evans<sup>6</sup> reported that in 1938 forty-three per cent of 224 students in Grade 9A in the Cleveland Heights High School had "slovenly and inaccurate" articulation and pronunciation. The voices in forty-six per cent of the cases were a "handicap to the child."

In a random sampling of 178 high-school sophomores in one Kansas City high school, fourteen per cent were found to have defects in voice or speech or both.<sup>7</sup> In the Evanston Township (Illinois) High School, over a three year

<sup>4</sup>Carhart, Raymond, "A Survey of Speech Defects in Illinois High Schools." *Journal of Speech Disorders*, Vol. IV, No. 1. 1939. Pp. 61-70.

<sup>5</sup>Stinchfield, Sara M., "The Speech of Five Hundred Freshman College Women." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. IX. 1925. Pp. 109-121.

<sup>6</sup>Evans, Dina Rees. "Report of Speech Survey in the 9-A Grade." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. XXIV. 1938. Pp. 83-90.

<sup>7</sup>Morris, D. W. "A Survey of Speech Defects in Central High School, Kansas City, Missouri." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXV. 1935. Pp. 262-269.

period, forty-six per cent of 2,006 freshmen showed speech deviations from the normal.<sup>8</sup>

While these surveys cover only a very small part of the problem, as random samplings they indicate strongly that a very large proportion of our high-school students have either defective speech or speech that is so far below the normal that it constitutes a definite handicap to their most effective communication. In many instances clinical rehabilitation under the direction of a well-trained clinician is indicated; in the great majority of cases, however, adequately organized classwork in speech will provide the necessary remedial measures. Such classes should be taught only by thoroughly prepared teachers of speech who are trained to detect the deficiency and to prescribe the proper exercises and drill.

According to the figures published by the White House Conference Committee in 1931<sup>9</sup>, nearly fifty per cent of the million public school children between the ages of five and eighteen who were found to be defective in speech were classified as "orally inactive." These children did not need the extensive, individual attention of a trained expert in speech pathology and rehabilitation; they did and do need speech improvement.

These are times when strong men can no longer be silent. It is hard to imagine an inarticulate Roosevelt, an unintelligible Churchill, or an inaudible Stalin. One of Abraham Lincoln's biographers wrote that there comes a time in every revolution when the man who can phrase it can lead it. At the San Francisco Conference there came many moments when the man who could say it could lead it.

If our secondary schools are to produce world citizens who can talk things over instead of fighting things out, they must accord at least as much attention to the half-million pupils, who, with a little help, will be normal or good speakers as to the half-million pupils who need intensive and extensive therapy before they can achieve speech on its lower levels.

Many states, among them Illinois, Indiana, Wisconsin, Oregon, Florida, and California, are making provision through their Divisions of Public Welfare, Crippled Children's Bureaus, or Departments of Public Instruction to care for children seriously handicapped in speech. These state plans provide attention for those children who have been rendered speechless or nearly so by "physical" or "organic" causes, *e.g.*, cerebral palsy, cleft lip, cleft palate, laryngectomy, poliomyelitis, and certain other crippling conditions. Many other states provide an elective- or substitute-for-English program of speech education for children who need no special attention to make their speech audible and intelligible but who can profit from training in debate and discussion,

<sup>8</sup>Hollingshead, Marie. "A Survey of the Speech Situation in Evanston Township High School, 1932-3, 1933-4, 1934-5." Master's Thesis, Northwestern University.

<sup>9</sup>White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *Special Education*, Report of the Committee on Special Classes. 1931. See the chapter on "The Child Defective in Speech."

interpretative reading and dramatics, public speaking, and radio speaking. Little or no provision has been made to bring up to normal the children whose speech is defective enough to be classified as sub-normal but not impaired enough to qualify them for special training in most state and county programs of speech correction.<sup>10</sup> There is a real need for the establishment of a middle ground in speech training; namely, speech improvement. This is neither speech nor speech correction.

Ideally, speech correction may be accomplished largely in the elementary schools.<sup>11</sup> Secondary schools should have to concern themselves only with speech and speech improvement programs. If we can judge from the results of various surveys conducted by colleges and universities, neither speech correction nor improvement is begun early enough. A few colleges offer courses called "Speech Improvement" and some of these institutions attempt to make their fundamental courses fill this need. Few secondary schools do anything but deplore the non-clinical cases of defective speech discovered in speech surveys.

Speech improvement might be incorporated in the secondary-school curriculum in any one or combination of several ways. Speech improvement classes could be taught by experienced speech teachers who have had some work in remedial speech techniques. The school or city or county speech correctionist could teach speech improvement classes in each of several schools. The traveling speech therapist might organize non-clinical cases into groups for work in voice and articulation.<sup>12</sup>

Whichever method is used, these cases should be handled on a group rather than an individual basis. Their defects are in communication rather than in ideation or actual voice or speech sound formulation and production. They may use "decent grammatical structure," "smooth transitions," and "good organization" and yet lack the ability to communicate these factors because they are deficient in voice or action or both. They need to improve co-ordinated speech activity itself rather than its component parts. This can be done only in group work. Although each student in such a group needs individual diagnosis and a personalized plan for improving his speech, it is essential that he work in a group so that his improvement may be evaluated in terms of his acquisition of adequate speech for normal communicative purposes.<sup>13</sup>

Speech that is neither seriously defective on a clear-cut physiological or psychogenic basis usually responds to group therapy as well as or better than

<sup>10</sup>Lassess, Leon. "The Organization of the Speech Improvement and Correction Program in Oregon." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXXI. 1945. Pp. 207-214.

<sup>11</sup>Strother, Charles R. "Trends in Speech Pathology." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXIX. 1943. Pp. 76-80.

<sup>12</sup>Wells, Charlotte G. "Expanding State Speech Correction Services." *Journal of Speech Disorders*. Vol. X. 1945. Pp. 123-128.

<sup>13</sup>Backus, Ollie L., and Dunn, Harriet M. "Experiments in the Synthesis of Clinical Methods Into a Program of Rehabilitation." *Journal of Speech Disorders*. Vol. IX. (1944), Pp. 1-17.

to individual case work. This makes for economy of time and effort on the part of the teacher and enables the trained therapist to work individually with more serious cases and, at the same time, to give the benefit of her training and experience to those in the less handicapped group.

Each administrative unit must work out its own plan for incorporating speech improvement into a school program. It is most important to recognize a need for speech training other than in corrective speech and speech skills and to make provision for fulfilling it. No teacher not especially trained in techniques of speech rehabilitation should teach a course in speech improvement. It sometimes takes greater skill and often requires more patience to improve slightly defective speech than to correct seriously defective speech so that a change may be noticed. In cases of severe impairment, any change is likely to be for the better and to be noticeable. When the defect is less marked, the improvement frequently will be almost imperceptible for a long time.

Any program for speech improvement should proceed along certain general lines and include certain materials. The inauguration of a course in or program of speech improvement should be preceded by a speech survey. This should be made by an experienced speech pathologist. It has been found that classroom teachers are fairly accurate in finding cases of defective speech<sup>14</sup> but since the next step is that of diagnosis, the pathologist should make the survey whenever this is possible. Diagnosis should be followed by the mapping of individual plans of therapy that will fit into a general plan for the entire group. Cases with similar defects should be grouped together so that several homogeneous groups within the class may be working together during drill periods. Each time the class meets, there should be, unless time is very limited, a general class period in which problems common to the group, or at least to most of its members, are studied, discussed and, whenever practicable, worked out; in addition, each small group should have time for work on specific problems peculiar to its members.

As each unit of work is completed (breath-control, voice production, pitch, resonance, articulation), each pupil should have an opportunity to interpret or speak before the group to demonstrate his ability and progress. This transfer of speech improvement to a real speech situation tends to motivate more consistent use of better speech techniques. Recordings should be made at the beginning of the course and at frequent intervals throughout the term to "show" the individual his improvement or lack of it. Whenever a "sound mirror" (or other steel tape recording instrument) is available, it is helpful as a motivating, teaching, and checking device.

In conclusion there are three steps in any effective program for speech improvement in the secondary schools; find the defectives; diagnose them accurately; and divide and treat the defectives according to their needs.

<sup>14</sup>Larr, Alfred. "A County Speech and Hearing Conservation Program." *Journal of Speech Disorders*. Vol. IX. 1944. Pp. 147-151.

## CHAPTER IV.

### The Personal and Social Development of the Student Through Speech

#### I. SPEECH AND PERSONALITY by

HOWARD GILKINSON of the *University of Minnesota*

##### SYMPTOMATIC SIGNIFICANCE OF SPEECH

**I**N conducting classroom work as well as in directing extracurriculum activities, the teacher of speech is confronted by the whole personality of the student. This includes attitudes, emotional tendencies, habits of thinking and analysis, as well as those elements of behavior usually referred to as speech skills, *i.e.*, language, voice, bodily action, and composition. It is only natural that differences of opinion should exist among the teachers in this field as to what aspects of student behavior should receive the greatest amount of attention. The trends of thinking among teachers of speech have no doubt reflected, and have been influenced by, current points of view among educators in general. When the curriculum as a whole is conceived as a congruence of specialties, with each course having its precise area of operation, defined in such a way as to exclude the objectives of all other courses, the tendency has been to define the functions of a speech course narrowly in terms of those elements of behavior which are directly involved in spoken communications. Possibly the present interest in general education will increase the tendency among teachers of speech to broaden their aims and to be less concerned about overlapping objectives.

One of the current trends, which deviates somewhat from the orthodox and conventional view of speech instruction, is seen in the tendency to regard speech behavior, or some aspects of it, as being symptomatic of the deep and complex emotional problems of the student. Stage fright is often cited as an example. It is very common among students, at least in a mild form, and not infrequently it is experienced in a sufficiently intense way to become a more or less disabling condition. In one group of college students in a beginning speech course seventy per cent testified that they were in a state of nervous tension before getting up to talk, and nine per cent reported that they were so frightened while speaking that they scarcely knew what they were saying. Only six per cent reported that speaking in public was a pleasurable experience unaccompanied by any doubts or fears.

The question is sometimes raised, are these reactions of fear to an audience specific to that kind of situation, or are they symptoms of deeper maladjustment? The answer seems to be that in many cases at least these social fears are associated with a somewhat generalized sense of inferiority. The answers to a questionnaire of those students who report considerable stage fright have been compared with the answers of those who report little or no stage fright.



and it was found that the former more frequently than the latter indicate a low evaluation of themselves with respect to such matters as pride in achievement, leadership status, general ability, persistence, observingness, thoroughness, and determination. The fearful students also indicate more worry or sensitivity about the following matters: sin, dimples, size, complexion, physical defects, personal habits, heredity, religious teachings, speech defects, relatives, home language, clothing, nicknames, failures, and criticism. It seems clear that stage fright is in many cases a symptom of a complex and inclusive set of psychological conditions, the amelioration of which might take the teacher of speech into areas of instruction somewhat broader than those conventionally related to speech.

Stage fright is not the only aspect of speech which has been found to be symptomatic. Some interesting research has been carried out during the last ten years on the relationships of voice and personality. High correlations have not been the rule, but there is evidence of some degree of association of poor personality with breathy, whiny, weak, and monotonous voices, and good personality with vibrant and controlled voices. The discovery of such relationships suggests that in some cases a change in the student's emotional adjustment is prerequisite to any favorable change in the quality of the voice.

#### EFFECTS OF INSTRUCTION

The evident involvement of speech skill with the emotional adjustment of the student has led quite naturally to some attempts to discover to what extent personality is modified through participation in the exercises and activities of the speech class and in extracurriculum speech activities. The usual method has been to give some personality inventory at the beginning and at the end of a period of training and to analyze the initial and final scores for significance of difference. There are a number of studies of this type and the results quite uniformly show changes in personality scores in what is presumed to be a favorable direction. Increases in self-sufficiency, dominance, emotional stability; reduction in stage fright, neurotic tendency, and introversion have been mentioned in the conclusions of such studies. Objections are sometimes voiced relative to the validity of pencil-and-paper personality tests, and no doubt the evidence from these studies will have to be accepted with some reservations. So far as it goes, however, it is entirely consistent with the theory that favorable changes in personality occur among many of the students who participate in the activities of a speech class. Little has been done experimentally to discover what kind of course has the greatest effect, and favorable changes in test scores have occurred in different situations, *e.g.*, in public speaking courses, in dramatics, and in the omnibus type of fundamentals course which is commonly found at both the high-school and college level. There have also been few if any attempts to discover how permanent these changes of personality are, or to what extent favorable changes are transferred to other situations. There is some evidence, however, that rising social confidence while in a



speech class is accompanied by increased confidence in other quite different social situations.

#### SPEECH INSTRUCTION AS A MEANS

It is evident in the foregoing discussion that speech classwork and activities have at times been used as a means of getting at broader educational problems. Other instances could be cited. Psychodrama has been coming into use in some hospitals for mental cases and in clinics. In this type of work the patient in co-operation with others dramatizes his own personal problems. As will be shown later, the speech situation can also be used for group counseling.

The remainder of this chapter is concerned with the use of speech instruction and group situations as a means of promoting the personal and social development of the student. The various sections have been contributed independently by authors who are particularly qualified by experience and research to discuss the topics assigned to them. The author of each section is identified.

It is not difficult to secure general agreement about some of the matters under consideration in this chapter. No doubt most teachers of speech believe that speech behavior is symptomatic of deep personality traits and problems, that these problems are significant in education, and that group situations can be used to achieve broad educational objectives. Anything approaching complete agreement is likely to end at that point. It may well be that the opinions expressed in the following sections represent the points of view of a sizable number of teachers, but they can hardly be assumed to be shared by all teachers. Teachers of speech debate over course objectives and ways and means just as teachers do in any other field. The purpose of this chapter is to give the high-school principal a partial view at least of the current thinking among teachers of speech relative to the use of speech instruction as a means of furthering the social and personal development of the student. It is at this point that speech instruction impinges most definitely upon the broader areas of general education.

The more conservative members of any professional teaching group often say, when confronted with a challenge to change objectives and methods, that the proposed programs are not really new. In the field of speech it is sometimes said that although courses have been traditionally offered under such titles as public speaking, voice and articulation, acting, or debate, the general education of the student has always been the main objective. There is a substantial amount of evidence to support this view; teachers of speech have resisted the tendency to become "mere specialists" as well as any group of teachers, possibly for the simple reason that they never could do a very effective job without, in some measure, taking the whole personality of the student into account.

Perhaps one of the most significant facts about the various new movements in this field including general semantics, training in listening, mental hygiene, training in informal and conversational speech, psychodrama, and group coun-

selling, is the open and above-board way in which one time "hidden" general objectives are announced and promoted. Perhaps, this bespeaks an improvement in the "climate" in which educational objectives are being discussed. At least, it appears no longer necessary to whisper about broader objectives or to "bootleg" them into the course for fear of raising a howl of indignation from other fields of specialization. Possibly we are approaching a period of enlightenment in which it can be freely admitted that special courses have special objectives which are more or less exclusively their own and that at the same time they share certain broader objectives with other areas of instruction. Certainly, no one would allege that the development of a wholesome social personality is the exclusive function of courses in speech.

## II. EDUCATING THE EMOTIONS AND DEVELOPING OBJECTIVE ATTITUDES TOWARD THE SELF by

BRYNG BRYNGELSON of the *University of Minnesota*

**I**T is an understandable fact that emotions play an important part in speech. In the study of aphasics (loss of speech due to a lesion in the brain) one observes that when controlled propositional speech is lost, emotional speech remains. Undoubtedly the early speech of human beings was entirely emotional, and later, when the cortex evolved, man gained the ability to organize and control the symbols of speech and to use them for more intelligent social purposes.

Due to our cultural stereotypes, which have their roots in childhood training, students develop little or no objectivity or adequate control over their emotions. They learn quite early in the home and school that feelings are not to be aired freely. Talking is an easy neurologic act for most people and it becomes, therefore, an easy medium for emotional release. But unfortunately, neither the individual nor his teachers understand the symptomatic significance of speech, and thus it is that man literally talks his way into emotional trouble, and then attempts blindly to talk his way out of it. Speech in most of us is a defense for our emotionally untuned personality structure. When we are asked why we act and behave as we do, we all too quickly reply with a good reason, but rarely with the real one. When we have a cross to bear, it is easy for us to project it on to someone else. When we are out of sorts with ourselves, we tend to think that the world and its people are against us. When we feel at heart we are inferior, we defend ourselves by assuming an air of importance, brag, take on conceit and vanity, bluster, or continue talking so that our listener has no chance to question us.

The processes described above are learned patterns and become so fixed in us that there is no end to the distortion which they produce in our intellectual and emotional habits. This is one reason it is so difficult for us really to know anyone. We thrive individually and socially on language patterns which are cluttered with deceit. Is it any wonder that we as a society get into a war of words, and then in order to settle our differences, enter a war of cannons?

Teachers of speech have an educational opportunity not offered by any other academic discipline. They have pupils, hundreds of them, during that very trying period of puberty, when the aforementioned patterns of defense are in the process of becoming set within the personality. Feelings of insecurity are most obvious at this age, and if one is interested at all in the psychology of speech behavior one should be challenged by the chance to be useful in altering and guiding these boys and girls who are soon to replace an older generation of citizens. It would be well for our society to have a new generation in which talking reflected in each person an honest personal evaluation instead of a fictional one. This task is neither ill-founded nor impossible.

#### A SUGGESTED PLAN

A plan of action is suggested for teachers which is based on a definition of speech which, as far as is known, is not found in any textbook, but which offers a new approach to anyone who is sick and tired of the old definition; namely, that speech is a tool.

Speech as the writer views it is a symbolic formulation of an inner emotional state or personal evaluation which operates as a process by which the organism adjusts itself to its environment. In time these symbolic formulations come to control the behavior of the individual.

With this concept of speech in mind the teacher should make the individual her sole concern. She should observe his platform speech behavior for the purpose of trying to find out why he talks as he does. She might observe that he has a deflated or an expanded ego, or that he is speaking to cover up his self-consciousness. What he says and his manner of saying it, the language he uses can be interpreted in relation to his own inner evaluation of himself. This obviously requires insight into behavior on the part of the teacher. This insight is not difficult to gain if one is at all curious about why people behave as they do. The teacher needs only to listen to her own speech and observe her own behavior. If she is honest in her self-evaluation, she can help her students become analytic about themselves as they participate in the activities of the classroom.

It is suggested that the teacher might well begin a speech class by discussing the elementary psychology of growing up. The pupils will enjoy this intimate and very personal material which applies to all human beings. They know that they have fears and are fast becoming self-conscious because of them. They will, if given an opportunity, discuss their feelings of insecurity with the teacher. They will readily see why they talk. If this approach is attempted, the taught will be amazed at the student's honesty, a trait much needed.

If the classroom discussion of personal problems is opened, it will be discovered that some individuals are distraught because of their physical features; some because they do not represent the majority race or nationality in their community; others have no confidence in their academic ability; still others are maladjusted as a result of their social status. Many problems can be talked

out and the speech teacher of such a group then becomes a participating adviser in an educational sense. She guides her pupils toward new and daring insights, toward new evaluations and a saner personal understanding of the close relationship between talking and one's inner self. Emerson said: "What you are speaks so loud I can't hear what you say."

The next step in this broad and enriched personal orientation involves platform rehearsals of the student's problems. Speech now becomes a directed catharsis, through "talking it out," "getting it off one's chest." Talking objectively about his emotional problems helps the student to gain a new evaluation of them. When he discovers that the listeners react favorably, he acquires a social sanction for himself, and becomes a human being free from the need of talking defensively.

If the teacher carries out a speech program of this type, she learns that what were formerly thought of as skills are merely superimposed patterns which are like a dull and hardened crust covering the real worth of a person. The talker becomes through speech hygiene a person and not a speaker. He is a teller of interesting stories, not a reader. He has educated his emotions, and through his self-analysis has gained a socially approved and objective attitude toward himself. He is a far more adequate talker than the individual who has learned all the tricks of deception which have been so beautifully described and recommended in books on winning friends.

If there ever were a time in human history when objective, natural, and honest men are in demand, it is now. No doubt, as life continues, this need will be intensified. By using speech to develop the personality of the student, teachers may be able to satisfy this need to some small degree. The material with which to work is present; where are the teachers?

### III. DEVELOPING SELF-SUFFICIENCY AND SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY by

ELWOOD MURRAY of the *University of Denver*

**I**F a free enterprise economy in a political democracy is to survive, the citizens must exhibit self-sufficiency balanced by social responsibility. Self-sufficiency is one chief basis for leadership; social responsibility is a chief basis for effective co-operation. Self-sufficiency without social responsibility may result in fascism; social responsibility without some self-sufficiency appears impossible in a democracy. These same conditions are also necessary for the survival and success of individuals and enterprises in the world of today. Self-sufficiency and social responsibility issue from the well-integrated, flexible, and adjustable person—the person who is proficient in facing changing facts and realities; the person who has a stability and character which comes from an orientation to a world of infinite change.

#### SPEECH AND PERSONALITY SHOULD BE PARALLEL

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In almost every aspect of speech behavior a relation to personality may be observed. Subdued and monotonous voice, chaotic or blocked thinking, impul-



siveness and strain, and other inappropriate speech manifestations reflect the background and history of the whole person. If speech improvement is to be genuine, if it is to transfer into all of the social contacts, if it is to be something more than a training in "adjustment to maladjustment," there must be an improvement of the inner controls and the orientation of the individual which is simultaneous with the growth of outward speech skills.

What should be the focus of this inner training? What, from the standpoint of adequate speech-personality and communication, should be stressed? In various terminologies the psychologists, the mental hygienists, the psychiatrists, and many of the educators give a clear answer. The pupil must be helped out of his inherent self-centeredness; he must be helped to become less impulsive, more emotionally stable, more objective; he must be helped to acquire serenity and poise, and he must continually be encouraged in discriminating spontaneity. He should be disciplined to listen, and to sense and evaluate the feelings of the other person. Above all, he must become skilled in dealing with the facts, those involved in "subject-matter" as well as those pertaining to any situation in which he finds himself, social or otherwise. A "good speaker" is primarily a well-organized person, and his general education and his speech skill should develop together. In the young person there should be a gradual progression from the gross and undifferentiated adjustments of infancy to the discreet, flexible, and appropriate behavior necessary in the complex world of today. Speech instruction should promote this development; namely, help men to evaluate the facts, to arrive at "truth," to co-operate; to obtain, in other words, social integration. When speech training becomes a *means* to these larger ends and not an *end* in itself, it will make its maximum contribution to education.

#### SPEECH EXPERIENCES AS OCCASIONS FOR PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Ordinarily, the speech training of the pupil should begin at whatever point he is under strain in social situations. He should be helped to localize his problem, and to understand it. Merely accurately stating his own problems frequently is sufficient, at least for the time. In dealing with the more severe speech-personality problems there should be co-operation with the guidance agencies of the school.

The opportunity of the speech teacher to individualize his work is an unusual one. He should give much attention to whatever test data are available, particularly those from personality and reading tests. Thus the teacher can better adjust individual assignments to specific needs and abilities. He should aim to keep the student working at the upper range of his ability, but not beyond a point wherein the student will obtain a feeling of success.

Dramatizations, oral readings, speeches, discussions, debates, dialogues, pantomimes, radio programs, book and magazine reviews, dramatizations, and various combinations of these become vehicles for the building of both self-sufficiency and social responsibility. They become especially valuable when



administered by the speech trained social science or English teacher, and may serve to integrate these fields with the life of the pupil.

When the student is lacking in self-sufficiency, the assignments, criticism, and entire atmosphere of the class and the course should be conducted to give him the necessary feeling of success and security through the approval of his fellow students and his teachers. Care must be given to insure that there is a step by step mastery of all aspects of each project before it is presented. Leading parts in plays, assignments calling for vigorous argument, story telling, and chairmanship responsibilities may be especially helpful in building self-sufficiency. The student might also present a review of biographies of men who have overcome problems similar to his own. His work should be guided to help him overcome his self-centered introversion.

The student lacking in social responsibility should be put into contact with literature which emphasizes human values and human sensitivities. He should especially be encouraged to become appreciative of poetry and the literature of the finer sentiments. He should be helped to communicate these sentiments through whatever speech vehicle is most appropriate. The use of visual aids and making chalk-talks may assist him to concentrate upon the meanings to be communicated instead of upon his words and himself. His skills of co-operation and proper evaluation should be checked and enhanced through participation in discussion panels and in other speech projects in which co-operation is stressed.

#### PREVENTIVE APPROACH SHOULD BE EMPHASIZED IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The period of the junior high schools seems to be most important for the average student in the development of self-sufficiency and social responsibility. The earlier stages of adolescence seem crucial in fixing many attitudes and evaluations which will remain throughout life. Most important are the attitudes acquired at this time toward speech, writing, reading, listening, and other linguistic activities. Aversions and other impulsive reactions toward situations with particular labels may become established. In this period the student may come to dislike "literature," or "poetry," or "history," or "algebra," or "themes," or "public speaking." All too frequently, he becomes "trained" in identification, *i.e.*, in confusing the word (or symbol) with the facts which the symbol is supposed to represent. If he is not given training in the relating of words to facts, if he does not in some manner or other learn to put his chief attention upon the "fact-territory" beneath the word, the basis for many blockages, tensions, mis-evaluations, and other semantic and personality disorders will be laid.

Experiments with adults have shown that the better speech personalities consistently put a very large part of their attention while speaking upon the fact-territory and upon their auditors; they put a secondary attention upon their word-maps and only a very slight and momentary attention upon themselves and their voices. Among the poorer speakers this emphasis was reversed.

They place a very large proportion of their attention upon their words as such (in reality upon their own behavior, *i.e.*, themselves), with a secondary attention (and in some cases, no attention) upon the fact-territory which the words represent.

Students can be taught to relate words to the facts they cover, to be aware of the various orders of removal (abstraction) which statements have from the conditions to which they refer. They can learn, in other words, that the word is not the fact. Knowledge is the result of abstracting a few characteristics from complex events. Most of our information, as it comes from others, is the result of abstractions from abstractions, and hence it is only partial in its coverage. It is impossible to know *all* about any situation. The real world to which we must adjust is a world of infinite change and process. No two objects or situations are identical in all respects, and no object, situation, or person remains absolutely the same. When students are taught to put their chief attention upon the changing facts, they become less dogmatic and impulsive and at the same time far more spontaneous and flexible. These concepts represent some of the chief formulations from general semantics as developed by Alfred Korzybski, and, of course, cannot be fully explained here. The methods, revolutionary as they are when applied skillfully, are simple and practicable when adapted to particular teaching situations. Attention should also be called to another methodology which is being applied to the problems of personality and evaluation; namely, the work of Dr. J. A. Moreno in psychodrama. Both Korzybski and Moreno have provided scientific approaches that may be used in the whole field of communications and human relations.

When students obtain control over their own mechanisms of evaluation, they become able to prevent the blockages and limited reactions which may later develop in relation to speech and other symbol situations. An illustration of the lack of self-sufficiency which most frequently develops is stage fright. It is far more significant as a symptom of the person's larger adjustments than is sometimes supposed. Severe stage fright very frequently occurs when self-sufficiency is lacking in many other situations. Conversely, the curing of stage fright may prevent blockages in the many other situations to which the pupil responds with tension, impulsiveness, or fear.

In addition to giving students sufficient experience in speech projects, preventive therapy consists in teaching them to avoid *identification* and *allness* in their reactions to situations involving symbols. Illustrations of this type of difficulty are all around us, but rarely are they understood. For instance, speakers often are not aware that their stage fright may be based upon previous unsuccessful performances or unpleasant social experiences, and that they are now reacting to superficial similarities between present and past situations. When the student has learned to evaluate the present situation properly, he has the basis for adjusting adequately to it.

## IV. COUNSELING AND SPEECH by

SHIRLEY PRATT formerly of Webster Grove (Missouri) High School

COUNSELING in a secondary school is usually composed of two related elements, *i.e.*, group guidance integrated with individual diagnosis and assistance. It is recognized that the home-room or group guidance program is effective only in so far as it is related to individual consultation. Conversely, the individual consultation program is made more effective when it is supplemented by group guidance. The relationship of the speech and counseling programs of the school has two quite different aspects:

1. Speech is related to counseling on the same basis as other school subjects and activities.
2. There is an important relation between speech and counseling within the guidance program itself.

## GROUP GUIDANCE

It is obvious that special techniques of communication are essential for the true counseling situation, *i.e.*, the interview between a student and a trained counselor, but it is in the group guidance program that we find the best opportunity to utilize speech. This is especially true of student initiated and directed discussions of common problems, which are particularly valuable if the students are taught the simple skills of conversation and discussion at the beginning of the program.

In a study conducted at Webster Groves, Missouri, in the ninth grade of the public schools, students answered the questions in the Symonds-Block Student Questionnaire. Then, in groups of ten, utilizing conversational techniques which had been taught previously, they discussed all the questions on which anyone had a deviate score. The students did not know, of course, that the questions they were discussing had an emotional significance for anyone in the group. Each student had the opportunity to have his problem discussed objectively while he listened or participated in the discussion, according to his personal choice.

The results of this study indicated that group guidance of the sort employed is valuable, more so in some respects than the individual interview. Discussion among students was more satisfactory from a guidance viewpoint than conference between a student and a teacher. The students acquired a better understanding of leadership, followership, and getting along with others.

It is a curious fact that students sometimes feel that their problems are too unimportant to be discussed. A counselor recently told the author that it was only after it was shown in a group discussion that repeated irritation between siblings was worth talking about that a large number of her group came to discuss "little" problems with her. Several remarked that they had thought that only "big problems" should be brought up to her. In a group discussion period these "minor" problems can often be discussed to the student's satisfaction, and he may come to realize the significance of problems which he had

previously regarded as being trivial. Matters relative to student discipline may be effectively talked over in the conversational periods.

The author is not alone in believing that group discussion is valuable in the school guidance program. Wrenn says: "A discussion of pertinent problems, by the students, not the teacher, will go far in producing an awareness upon their part of the necessity for careful planning and will lead to normal counseling situations. Better school morale and a more balanced personality development should also result from student discussions of vital individual and school problems."<sup>1</sup> Another writer says at the conclusion of an investigation: "The findings in this study suggest that much guidance information can be acquired effectively through the group program and that thinking and planning may also be challenged and stimulated in a desirable manner. The experience and observation of the investigator have led to the conviction that certain mental hygiene problems of adjustment can be faced more objectively by students after they have been studied as common human problems, and that the group activity may pave the way for more effective individual counseling than is often possible, otherwise."<sup>2</sup> The opportunities afforded through group conferences of students in the guidance program for an impersonal and objective discussion of emotionally tinged problems enables some students to gain release from their difficulties. Furthermore, they may be more willing as a result of such experience to discuss their problems individually with a counselor. "Recognition of some problems as common human problems enables some students to face these problems more easily."<sup>3</sup>

#### COUNSELING AND THE SPEECH PROGRAM

Let us turn our attention now to the very important part which the speech program itself can play in the guidance program. Students with special personality problems can be guided into the curriculum and extracurriculum activities which will provide them with the greatest amount of help. Students with special talent in speech may be encouraged to participate. It is also possible to direct students in need of corrective speech work into the activity which will help them. Some speech programs are conducted by teachers who have a sympathetic attitude toward the child with a special speech problem, and they are willing to arrange their program so as to give opportunities for the handicapped student as well as for the average and the gifted student.

In the counseling of talented students one of the difficult problems is the guiding of those who have set their hearts upon becoming professional speakers, such as a radio artist or an actor. Teachers in the secondary schools are rarely in a position to predict the chances for success of any student in profes-

<sup>1</sup>Wrenn, C. G. Hein, R. G., and Pratt, S. L. *Aids for Group Guidance*. Minneapolis: Educational Test Bureau. 1942.

<sup>2</sup>Bennett, M. E. *An Evaluation of an Orientation or a Group Guidance Program in a Four-Year Junior College*. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. (dissertation). Stanford Junior University. 1937. Pp. 295-296.

<sup>3</sup>Allen, R. D., and Bennett, M. E. *Guidance Through Group Activities*. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: Public School Publishing Company. 1938. Ch. 5.

sional speech work. He should be allowed to see the realities of the professional world, and cautioned about his chances for success. If his interest persists he should be helped in planning his course of study.

The counselor would do well to keep in mind when advising students that different courses and activities have different educational values. If the teacher of oral reading and interpretation refrains from forcing her own interpretation upon the student, but by skillful questioning and suggestion reveals the meaning and the depth of emotion behind a selection, she can help him in the development of an appreciation for good interpretation. Drama has similar educational value. In the author's opinion, the student profits more from working on the best dramatic literature than he does from continually playing the teenager in "plays written especially for high-school students."

Group participation in the form of choral reading helps some students to learn better phrasing and interpretation. In one instance it was found that practice in choral reading improved the ability of a group of students to read parts in a play tryout. Students become conscious of the importance of good diction in classes in which radio equipment is used. Extemporaneous speaking enables them to think and speak effectively without memorization. Debate develops ability to organize and present ideas logically. Speech courses and activities doubtless have other educational values; the ones mentioned here apply particularly to the development of personality.

The speech program in a high school, then, may be utilized for the benefit of the entire student body through correlation with the guidance program. Students with special talents can be directed into the activities which further develop their abilities. Students with personality problems as well as those involved in disciplinary difficulties may be helped through participation in the speech program. Speech is also valuable in the group program. When students are allowed to meet in small groups to discuss problems of common interest, with the teacher-counselor acting as a source of information or advice rather than an obvious director of the discussion, many find solutions for their problems, or find themselves willing to discuss their emotional problems with the counselor. The method may prove a real help to the school administrator when he has on his staff only a limited number of persons who are trained in counseling procedures.

#### V. SPEECH IN INFORMAL SOCIAL ACTIVITIES by

CLARA KREFTING MAWHINNEY of the  
*Bradley Polytechnic Institute*

#### THE NEED FOR TRAINING IN INFORMAL SPEECH

**T**HE preceding sections of this chapter are devoted to general expositions of the contributions of speech education to the development of personality. In this section concern is given to a more specific discussion of one type of speech activity commonly studied in the speech program in secondary schools.

It is the study of conversation and other types of informal speech activity. This speech activity has a dual significance here. Its success often depends heavily on the nature of personality traits and attitudes. It provides a helpful program of activities for the education of the personality.

The need for training in informal speaking has been expressed by many educators. Almost every course of study, curriculum, or outline of study stressed the need for "practical everyday speech." The Oregon course of study states, "The teacher should constantly stress that speech training is preparation for practical, everyday living—a means of social adaptation and a means of developing the total personality of the individual." The course of study in speech for the state of Michigan indicates that the classroom should be a laboratory, as near to life as possible, not a recitation room. It also specifies that the kind of speech taught should be informal. The exercises for speech training listed in this course of study illustrate the use of informal social activities. Some of them are:

Conversations	Reporting news
Reading aloud to entertain	Telling stories
Telephoning	Inducing others to read a book
Sharing experiences	Making reports
Discussions	Explaining
Making social introductions	Narrating events
Club activities	Persuading others
Parliamentary activities	Demonstrating processes
Listening	Club programs

The need for skill in conversational speaking manifests itself in almost every profession and vocation. Whether the individual is foreman or worker in a factory, sales clerk, teacher, host or hostess, personnel manager, insurance agent, or a worker in any one of the the thousand or more vocations open today, a good informal style of speaking will contribute to his success.

Informal speaking should be taught in a fundamental course, which should be the basis for all other speech courses. Such a course is very likely to be a terminal one for the average boy or girl in high school, who needs to learn to speak well in informal social situations. The talented boy or girl, who wishes to specialize in radio, public speaking, platform reading, or acting, should also be trained in informal speech in order that he may make adjustments to society.

#### METHODS FOR TEACHING INFORMAL SPEECH

The questions are often asked, can informal speaking be taught? How can it be taught? Certain types of exercises and activities were previously mentioned in connection with the Michigan course of study. Chances for free expression and informal speech can be provided through class discussions, exercises in conversation, story telling, oral reading, and open forums. Problems of the community, home, church, and recreational life can be discussed



in small classroom groups. The subject matter for informal speech assignments can be secured not only from life activities within and outside the school, but also from other fields of study, such as literature, art, sociology, science, foreign languages, and social sciences.

The teacher must of course have a clear comprehension of teaching methods, and ways and means of checking and evaluating her procedures. While the student is learning to express himself naturally and freely, he must be given personal suggestions and guidance. This can be done through general class discussions, through constructive suggestions by members of the class, and through conferences with the student. Definiteness of assignment, criticism, and evaluation are absolutely necessary.

The development of good conversational speech should be the paramount aim. The student must learn to think clearly and logically, to express himself in language that can be understood by his listeners, to use his body in such a way that it contributes to the expression of his ideas, and to use his voice effectively.

Assignments in conversational speaking might be divided into the following groups:

1. Conversing in the home: narrating events, describing people or places, explaining methods and actions.
2. Conversing in public places: on the street, in stores and shops, in restaurants, in theatres.
3. Conversing with new friends: learning how to introduce people, remembering names, adjusting to new friends.
4. Conversing with old friends: learning the give and take conversation, finding subjects that interest one's listeners, overcoming personal handicaps or peculiarities.
5. Conversing as host or hostess: informal parties, dinners, and dances.
6. Conversing over the telephone: ordering by telephone, sending a telegram, inviting guests, asking favors.

The classroom discussion of such questions as the following is also helpful:

- How do we gain information for conversation?
- How do we check our conversational ability?
- What are the characteristics of the good conversationalist?
- How should one start a conversation?
- How should one carry on, or follow through?
- What subjects are taboo?
- How can we handle those who will not talk?
- How can we gain poise?
- How may one change the subject of conversation?

Assignment for interviews and conferences may be divided into two classes:

1. Interviewing for information: a famous person for a news report, an old-time settler for historical information, a foreigner for geographical information.
2. Persuasive interview: applying for a job, organizing a new club, soliciting funds.



Guides for each speech exercise should be carefully explained to the student, and when the project is completed a careful evaluation should be made. It may be desirable for the student to keep a systematic notebook record of his experiences, and to undertake an evaluation of his own work when time does not permit a classroom discussion of it. A student's record of his experiments in conversations with new friends might include such items as the following:

1. Conversed with ..... at .....
2. I tried to find ..... interests by .....
3. We talked about ..... , ..... , .....
4. The conversation was started by .....
5. .... seemed to enjoy talking about .....
6. His hobbies and interests are .....
7. His mannerisms and identifying characteristics are .....

These and other techniques are being employed in many places for the teaching of conversation, interview, and conference. They are all developed on the basis of the general principle expressed in the *Experience Curriculum*. "The art of communication can be mastered through experience in actual, normal circumstances."

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## CHAPTER V

### Speech Defects

#### I. KINDS OF SPEECH DEFECTS by

OLLIE BACKUS of the *University of Michigan*

**S**PEECH is considered to be defective when it is conspicuously different from an accepted norm, when it interferes with communication, when it is labored, when it is unpleasant to hear or "see," when it is inappropriate to age, or when it causes the user to be anxious or maladjusted<sup>1</sup>.

Seriously defective speech is easily recognized as such. Speech which is defective in a lesser degree may be recognized by some persons but not by others. For example, defective speech is more readily recognized by teachers who are "speech conscious" than by those who are not. It is often more apparent to persons who are not too closely associated with the child than to those who know him well and take his liabilities and assets for granted. It is often penalized more severely in communities with high cultural standards and among people who use a relatively high standard of speech.

No hard and fast line of demarcation exists between speech that is defective and speech that is merely slovenly or below average standards. Slovenly speech may be considered to be a variation *within* the range of normal; defective speech a variation *outside* the range of normal. A working distinction will become evident, however, as various types of defects are identified and described.

The incidence of speech defects in secondary schools cannot be reported statistically at this time. A number of factors are responsible for this situation. Many school systems that have functioning programs of speech correction only in the grade system have not surveyed the problem at the high-school level. Some systems which have conducted surveys in high schools have reported only on such cases as were observed by teachers unaware of many kinds of speech defects; hence, these do not necessarily represent all the cases in those high schools. Furthermore, the surveys in such schools would be expected to show a relatively low incidence of defective speech in high schools because of the availability of speech training in the elementary grades. The Detroit schools, for example, report a known incidence of four per cent of the high-school population. These cases were discovered through the classroom teacher and represent a school system with an active program in all grades. An incidence of four per cent would probably be a conservative estimate.

#### SPEECH DEFECTS CLASSIFIED

Speech defects may be classified in several different ways, according to one's point of view. The classification used here is chosen because it is already

<sup>1</sup>West, Robert, Kennedy, Lou, and Carr, Anna. *The Rehabilitation of Speech*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1937. Van Riper, Charles, *Speech Correction*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939.

somewhat familiar to the layman. This list is by no means complete but it represents the types of speech defects which are most commonly encountered in secondary schools.

1. *Stuttering* is a disturbance in the fluency of speech. It is characterized by muscular tensions which appear at the beginning or during the act of speaking. Along with these tensions there may be repetition of sounds or syllables, a slight hesitation, or a complete block in the production of sound. In mild cases of stuttering, the tensions are usually limited to those muscles which are directly concerned with speech; that is, the muscles of the lips, jaw, tongue, and throat. In severe cases of stuttering, however, excessive tension may be seen also in muscles of the face, neck, shoulders, even arms or legs. These are called secondary symptoms and appear as a result of the stutterer's attempts to cope with the primary symptoms or tension. Symptoms of personal and social maladjustment almost always appear in stutterers of high-school age as a result of the stuttering. Stammering is a term sometimes applied to this speech disorder, but stuttering is the more widely accepted term. Stuttering is a disorder of childhood. The age of onset ranges in most cases from two to seven years, with the average probably around three years. The symptoms may be persistent or they may appear intermittently over a period of time. The incidence of stuttering is usually considered to be one per cent of the total population.

2. *Cleft palate speech* is the name commonly applied to denote the distortions in speech which result from the congenital defect called cleft palate. Cleft palate is a failure of prenatal development. Normally, the tissues which form the roof of the mouth and the soft tissues at the rear of the mouth grow from the sides and meet to form a juncture in the middle. In about one out of every 1200 babies born, these tissues have stopped growing before they have joined in the midline, and so at birth there is a hole in the roof of the mouth, or a cleft in the palate. If this failure of development extends through the upper jaw to the tissue of the lip, then the condition known as cleft lip (harelip) exists. Cleft lip and palate may occur together or they may occur separately. The anatomical deficiency should be repaired by surgery in infancy. Improved surgical techniques are resulting in very much better speech in cleft palate patients. Occasionally such a child will develop normal speech. Usually, however, speech will remain defective even after surgery.

In most cases normal speech can be acquired through adequate clinical training. In cases of cleft lip only, speech is usually normal. In cases of cleft palate, speech is distorted because too much of the air stream escapes through the nose. This produces marked nasality on all vowels and a type of nasal emission called a "nasal snort" on many consonants. The explosive sounds "p," "b," "t," "d," "k," and "g" are defective because the patient has not learned how to build up pressure and release it in the mouth cavity. Many or all of the fricatives ("f" and "v," the two "th" sounds, "s" and "z," and "sh" and its voiced equivalent) are defective because the air is emitted through the nose

instead of through the mouth. The glides "r" and "l" are frequently distorted or absent. The cleft palate patient usually shows also a distorted pattern of force. Symptoms of personal and social maladjustment are usually present, both because of defective speech and real or fancied facial deformity.

3. *Hearing loss* is very prevalent among school children and commonly results in defective speech. Unfortunately, the condition is too often not recognized by teachers, and if recognized is still more frequently not understood. Children with a total loss of hearing are readily identified and sent to schools for the deaf or special classes for the deaf in public schools. It is the vast number of hard of hearing children in school whose handicaps are not identified so readily.

If a child has had hearing loss from early childhood, his speech articulation will be defective to some degree, particularly in the production of the consonant sounds. The fricatives "s" and "z" are especially affected and will be distorted or omitted. All final consonants are generally omitted. Voice quality, pitch,



"It's a witta boy wit a doggie." Before starting to correct a speech defect, the teacher has to find out exactly what needs correcting.

melody, and loudness are usually not affected in the moderately hard of hearing, but are distorted in varying degrees in profoundly hard of hearing children.

It is important for teachers to recognize that a child may show considerable evidence of hearing and yet have enough hearing loss to have produced defective speech and impaired ability in understanding conversation. What such a person hears may be compared roughly to what the average person may have heard over a telephone on a country line when the connection was poor. Speech is audible but blurred and not readily intelligible.

The group audiometer tests now given with increasing frequency in many school systems are useful in detecting hearing loss. Children suspected of this handicap on the group test should have individual tests by a pure tone audiometer in order to confirm the diagnosis. Where audiometer testing is not easily available, the teacher should be alert for signs of hearing loss, *e.g.*, failure to understand speech when the subject of conversation is changed or when the speaker's face is turned from view, defective speech, poor attention, or close observation of the speaker's face.

The incidence of hearing loss ranges from five to seven per cent of the population. In schools with an active program of hearing conservation, however, the incidence has dropped very markedly.

4. *Cerebral palsy* is a condition which may or may not affect speech. It is caused by injury to the motor nerve tracts in the brain, usually at birth. This injury seriously impairs the patient's ability to control finely co-ordinated muscular movements. The patient may have great difficulty in walking, in using the arms, in speaking without severe facial grimaces, and so on. The speech when affected is labored and difficult, inflection of melody and force are severely distorted, voice quality may be husky, and articulation so defective as to render the speech nearly unintelligible. These cases are not common in the school population, but when they do exist, they should be properly understood. Persons suffering from cerebral palsy are commonly considered to be mentally retarded because of their atypical motor behavior. Mental retardation may exist in cases of cerebral palsy, but it does not necessarily have to be present. If a child with this handicap has succeeded in getting to high school, it may be assumed that his mentality is at least average. Teachers should realize that the standard psychological tests measuring intelligence do not give a true measure of the intelligence of persons with cerebral palsy because of the severe handicap in muscular co-ordination. Each case must be judged upon long and close association and must be evaluated by a specialist who understands the disorder.

5. *Disorders of vocal pitch.* It is not uncommon to find among high-school boys some whose voices do not change in pitch at the time of adolescence. In some, such a failure of the voice to become lower in pitch is caused by a disorder involving the endocrine glands. In others, it may well be a

variation in endocrine activity though not severe enough to be medically pathological. In these cases the voice will be atypical not only in respect to pitch but also in respect to quality because of the influence which pitch has upon vocal quality. Girls' voices, too, become somewhat lower in pitch at adolescence and sometimes one hears voices in girls which need to be lowered. Occasionally voices in both boys and girls are too low in pitch, in which event the quality is apt to be husky.

6. *Disorders of vocal quality.* Disorders of vocal quality are those in which the tone or timbre of the voice is not clear or pleasing. A husky or hoarse voice may be due to organic factors such as paralysis of one vocal cord, nodes or growths on the vocal cords, chronic inflection or inflammation in the larynx as caused by catarrhal conditions or allergy; or it may be caused by a functional disturbance such as general muscular tension or misuse of the vocal mechanism. The voice may be breathy, that is, have too much unvoiced air. It may be nasal or it may be lacking in a normal amount of nasal resonance. Diagnosis should be made by a speech clinic, in consultation, where needed, with a nose and throat specialist.

Insufficient volume in the speaking voice is a persistent problem recognized by teachers but it is ordinarily not to be considered a speech disorder. While it may arise because of general health factors, it is more usually a psychological problem involving confidence and motivation to improve.

7. *Disorders of articulation*, not due to organic pathology, are by far the most common speech defects encountered in public schools. In institutions which have speech correction in the lower grades, these should all have been cleared up before pupils reach high school. However, in schools without speech correction, such cases will be quite commonly found in high school. Disorders of articulation are errors in the production of consonant sounds or errors in joining the speech sounds together into speech patterns.

The most common articulatory defects involve the production of "s" and "z" sounds. Errors on "s" and "z" constitute what is known as lisping. The most common type of lisp is the substitution of "th" for "s" and "z" (*I thee* instead of *I see*). This is also known by the term lingual protrusion lisp. It may vary from case to case all the way from an outright substitution of "th" for "s" to a slight distortion of "s" in the direction of a "th" sound. Another variety of lisping is produced by a curling of the tongue, or a motion off-side. Sometimes "t" and "d" are substituted for "s" and "z." This is commonly found in cases of hearing loss. Sometimes the "s" sound will be omitted entirely.

Another common variety of lisping is known as the lateral lisp. In this condition the tongue is humped up and touches the top of the mouth with the air stream coming over the sides of the tongue. A lateral lisp may affect only the "s" and "z" sounds, only the "sh" sound and its voiced equivalent (as in the word *measure*), or a combination of all four sounds. When the

"sh" sound is involved, then the "ch" and its voiced equivalent will be defective too because this pair of sounds contains the "sh." (In the word *chin* the first sound is "t," then "sh;" in the word *jump* the first sound is "d.")

Other consonant sounds which are commonly defective are "r," "l," "k," and "g." Teachers frequently report that a pupil who does not make the "r" sound talks "like a southerner." The differentiation can be made easily between southern dialect and an "r" defect by asking the pupil to say a word beginning with "r." If he says *wed* for *red* or makes a sound more like "w" than "r," then he has a defective "r" sound. In cases of "l" defects, the most common substitution is "w" for "l" in the beginning of a word: *wight* for *light*; "o" for "l" at the end of words: (*beo* for *bell*). Sometimes a glide made with the back of the tongue instead of the tip is used in place of "l" and the sound is somewhat similar to the explosive consonant "ga." When "k" and "g" are defective, the explosive sounds "t" and "d" are usually substituted; that is, the tip of the tongue instead of the back is used.

Articulatory defects involving the blending of the sounds together to form a pattern of speech are not as commonly encountered, except of course, in cases of hearing loss and cerebral palsy. Some cases present this type of defect, however, probably because of an early brain injury.

8. *Foreign dialect* is another type of defective speech which is a persistent problem in many schools. Fortunately, in most first-generation Americans, the deviations in speech are very slight in comparison to what one might expect. Ordinarily the two "th" sounds, as in *think* and *then*, are the only consonant sounds which are defective. In some nationality groups the "ng" click is also a problem; that is, the person adds a hard "g" sound at the end of an "ng" sound as in *going gout*. Some deviation may also be noted in the inflection of melody and force and in rate. In cases of more severe distortion of speech pattern because of foreign dialect, the teacher should consult a more complete description of foreign dialect problems.

## II. THE SPEECH CORRECTION PROGRAM by

ERNEST HENRIKSON of the University of Colorado

**T**HE speech defective, like any other person, is an individual. Thus his problem is an individual one and the way in which he will respond to his speech problem will be individual, depending on (1) his defect, (2) how his social environment has responded to his defect, and (3) his own attitude toward his defect. Put into an over-simple formula, this means that  $SD + SR + IR = ASD$ , in which SD is the speech defect, SR is the social response, IR is the individual response, and ASD is the adjustment of the speech defective to his problem. Unfortunately, each of the quantities in such a hypothetical formula is subject to continuous variation, both for different individuals and for the same individual at different times. As an example, two boys who are stutterers could vary greatly in the intensity and frequency of



their problems. One, and it might be the one with the most severe stuttering, could be quite objective in his response to his problem while the other might be self-conscious about his defect to the point of morbidity. Further, each would find that the amount of difficulty he had would vary from time to time and from place to place. Each stutterer might find that his speech was easier and better when he was talking to friends, to persons he considered inferior (in physical or mental status), or to animals. But each might find his speech was at its worst when he was upset, when he was talking to strangers, or to persons he considered superior.

Thus it should be obvious that generalizations about the adjustment problems that speech defects involve can be only a starting point in a genuine analysis of the problem. Specific and varied applications must of necessity be made to each case. Each speech defective must be considered in his own right.

For speech defectives, individually and as a group, the secondary-school period is likely to require many and complicated adjustments. The speech defect is not an isolated thing, operating apart from the whole person and the total environment in which he lives. His speech defect is a part of his whole individual and social pattern. Hence, problems which grow out of his own development, personally and in relation to society, may be influenced by and may influence his speech difficulty.

WHAT ARE SOME OF THESE PROBLEMS AND HOW DO THEY RELATE SPECIFICALLY  
TO DEFECTIVE SPEECH?

Adolescence is a period of pronounced sexual development, in both its physical and social aspects. Because of this development, there is an increased awareness of the person's own physical self. Heterosexual interests arise and mature, centering first on the members of the opposite sex as a group and gradually narrowing to individual members of that group. These changes in themselves quite normally involve tremendous physical and psychological readjustments. If they are complicated by the presence of a speech defect, even greater disturbances may result. The boy or girl wants to be considered attractive to members of the other sex and to be adequate in his or her adjustments to them. A speech defect may cause frustration in either or both of these adjustments. Speech is one of the most evident manifestations of personality and the most prominent vehicle of social contact. Its failure to serve adequately for these functions will be accentuated by the self-awareness which the adolescent is developing. True, even at this late period certain speech variations, such as an infantile voice in a girl, may be considered "cute," or may even be an asset in some situations, but these are the exceptions. The stuttering boy who is certain that no girl wants to "date" a stutterer, the girl with a cleft palate who is the butt of jokes among the boys because of her "funny" speech and has become shy and retiring or blatant and aggressive—these are types all too familiar to the speech pathologist.

The adolescent must also adjust to new home relationships. This is the period in which he must move away from the close protection and supervision of his parents. He must learn to think and act more and more for himself. Here again the speech defective may have special problems. These arise from two sources. Through the very fact that he is defective in speech, he may have developed a general sense of inadequacy which will make him reluctant to try to stand on his own. He may enter the battle of life having already developed a sense of imminent defeat. Furthermore, the fact that their son or daughter is defective may have caused the parents to over-protect and over-direct him. They may even now be reluctant to push him out of the parental nest into the turbulent ebb and flow of life's storms. As a result, and this is conditioned by the response of the speech defective and his environment to his problem, the speech defective may hold back, trying to keep his home ties intact. Or, if he does break away, he may look for a substitute—a person or group of persons—which will take the place of the protection of the home. If circumstances plunge the speech defective into situations in which he must stand on his own, this test may serve as the basis for developing new powers and maturity in him. He may discover that, when he has to, he really can fend for himself. But if he fails to meet his new problems there is the danger that he will develop an even greater sense of inadequacy.

As he moves farther and farther from the sheltered confines of his home, the adolescent also must move to a position of greater and greater economic independence. With the prolonged adolescence of modern society, the youth may not have to face this as an immediate problem during his secondary-school days. But for the majority, this will be the period when decisions about preparing for or getting a job will be pressing. Here again, the speech defective may have special problems. Proficiency in certain types of work, he will realize, requires varying amounts of talking. "Will my speech be adequate to meet these demands?" is a disturbing question often haunting the speech defective. Unfortunately, too often he has no special help in answering this and similar questions. So he may drift along in fear and confusion, hoping for some kind of miracle which will cure his speech defect and, simultaneously, solve his other problems too. Or he may turn in bewilderment to one of the quack "healers" who guarantee, for a handsome fee, to cast out this "speech devil" of his.

In some cases the speech defective may retreat into a kind of work which he does not like or is not especially adapted to but which, he feels, will not involve much speech and will, thus, allow him to escape from rather than solve his problem. For some speech defectives, the growing realization of having to face economic self-sufficiency will lead to a careful and sane evaluation of the speech problem and will result in their seeking out help, both to determine the significance of the speech problem for varying kinds of work and to discover what can be done to overcome the handicap.

These are not all the types of adjustments the secondary-school pupil must make. Those mentioned are important and somewhat representative. They include the adjustments to individual development, physical and psychological; adjustments to new independence growing out of an increasing breaking of home ties; and adjustments to new responsibilities emerging from an approaching need for economic independence. In each of these areas, as has been indicated, the speech defective may have to meet special problems. Unfortunately, these problems of the speech defective may operate in a circular fashion. The new adjustments he is facing, because of the pressures they impose on him, may aggravate his speech defect, especially if he has a marked emotional response to it. This, in turn, may increase his fears and worry, which may then complicate his general adjustment, and make his speech defect worse.

As was stated earlier, these are generalizations. Individual application must be made to the special problems of each defective. As a matter of fact, just the opposite of much that has been stated is true of some speech defectives. Wise parents and teachers, recognizing the potential handicap growing from the speech defect, may have made a special successful effort to build objectivity and independence in the defective. In such cases, the speech defective may come to the period of adolescence more prepared to make the adjustments of that turbulent period than his "normal" classmates. Here again it is obvious that each speech defective must be viewed as an individual case.

#### WHAT CAN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL DO TO HELP SPEECH DEFECTIVE?

"Employ a speech correctionist" might seem to be the simple answer, just as "pass a law" is the panacea advocated by some for the simple solution of economic, political, and social problems. But the solution is not so simple. Many secondary schools, because of their size, present program, or attitude of the administration, will not employ a speech correction specialist at the present time. Even when a speech correctionist is employed, this is the beginning and not the end of solving the problem. A genuine solution of the problem must include the co-operative effort of all teachers, parents, doctors, dentists, and others who have any contact with the speech defective.

There are some things every secondary school can and should do. Here are specific recommendations which are intended to be merely suggestive and are not assumed to be complete or final.

1. Select someone in the school system who is genuinely interested in students and their welfare. Pick an individual with a background of training in understanding people, preferably one with training in psychology, biology, and similar fields.
2. Encourage this person, by all means available, to get special training in speech correction at one of the colleges or universities offering such training. There are many institutions that provide training in this field. Reliable information on this point can be secured through the American Speech Correction Association, the official professional organization of speech correctionists. The secretary of that organization, Dr. D. W. Morris, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana, or any of the members of the association will be glad to help.

3. Give the person selected as much time as the program will possibly allow to develop speech correction service for the particular secondary school involved.
4. Bring in speakers to talk to the teachers about speech correction, what it is and how they can help in the work.
5. Secure speakers who will discuss speech correction in a practical way at teachers' institutes and conventions.
6. Enlist the co-operation of local doctors and dentists to speak on phases of their work which have implications for speech, its development and problems.
7. Enlist the co-operation of the colleges and universities of your community for the referral of speech cases which your system may not be able to handle.
8. Encourage the colleges and universities of your state, if they do not already have such a service, to build a speech correction program which (a) can be used for immediate service to your school and (b) can train your present and future teachers in speech correction.
9. Make available to the teachers books on speech correction which will give them a basic understanding of work in this field. Here again, the American Speech Correction Association will be glad to be of help in the selection of such books. See that the *Journal of Speech Disorders*, published by this association, is placed in your school library. It contains scientific and practical articles on the various types of speech defects and their correction.
10. Enlist the co-operation of the people of the community through talks to parent groups, parent-teacher groups, service clubs, and similar groups about speech and its problems. College and university specialists and qualified doctors, dentists, and nurses can be used for such talks.

All these are suggestions which every secondary school can well adopt. When it is possible, a more extended and complete program should be organized which will provide for the adequate care of all speech defectives in the school system. Such an optimal program might include:

1. Employing a competent speech correctionist. He or she should be not only a person who has formal knowledge about the diagnostic and remedial techniques of speech correction, but also one who can integrate and co-operate with all agencies of the school and community for the development of the speech improvement program. The professional qualifications of a speech correctionist are best described in terms of the qualifications for the various levels of membership in the American Speech Correction Association. A statement of these qualifications can be secured from the secretary, Dr. D. W. Morris.
2. Encouraging and helping her to develop to the maximum the suggestions listed under 4 through 10 above, with additions and modifications to suit local needs.
3. Providing a medical check of the speech and hearing mechanism for deviations that may influence speech.
4. Providing financial aid for cases needing surgery for parts of the speech mechanism, such as surgery for cleft palate.
5. Providing financial aid for cases needing hearing aids.
6. Developing regular and systematic referral of cases to the university or college speech clinics of the state or community.
7. Instituting a speech check to be given by the speech correction teacher as a means of discovering the speech needs of the students.

8. Developing research projects, with the co-operation of the speech correction teacher, for working out the most effective way in which speech correction work can be integrated with and incorporated into the regular activities of the school program.
9. Inaugurating an advisory service for speech defectives, under the supervision of the director of personnel and the speech correction teacher, to include problems of general adjustment and choice of vocation.
10. Building a working co-operation between the speech correction teacher and the teachers, nurses, social workers, and others who work in the elementary schools so that speech defectives may be helped at as early an age as possible.

What any particular school can do and where it will begin with its program will, of course, depend on the local situation. The first thing of a major importance is to realize that the problem of the speech defective exists in every secondary school and to be anxious to work toward a practical solution of this problem. From this will grow a survey of present local resources and possibilities with a maximum utilization of what is at hand. From such an interest and with such beginnings developments can be pushed as rapidly as seems reasonable and in the directions that local needs and facilities dictate.

### III. THE CLASSROOM TEACHER AND THE SPEECH CORRECTIONIST by

HAROLD WESTLAKE of the *School of Speech of Northwestern University*

**T**HE services of the speech correctionist in a school system may be conceived of as falling into the following divisions:

1. Selecting pupils in need of speech correction.
2. Classifying of such pupils according to the type and degree of speech deviation.
3. Making complete case studies of pupils who have speech problems, assessing all contributing factors, evaluating the total adjustment problem, and determining the best action to meet the total problem.
4. Sorting cases which can be handled by the classroom teachers from the more involved cases which must be trained by the speech correctionist.
5. Conferring with parents and teachers on proper procedures for helping pupils who do not require training by the speech correctionist.
6. Conferring with parents and teachers on the proper management of pupils who require speech training from the correctionist.
7. Checking with the teachers and parents on the progress pupils make.
8. Consulting specialists and agencies in order to get additional advice or service on special problems.

In planning for the services of a teacher of speech correction it is well to keep in mind that this special teacher will not teach speech alone but that he will teach pupils. At the same time the employment of a special teacher does not relieve the classroom teacher of the responsibility for doing everything possible for exceptional pupils. The addition of a speech correction teacher should result in a co-ordinated effort to bring about the best adjustment of pupils who have speech problems.

## THE CLASSROOM TEACHERS' PART

The classroom teacher can ordinarily be most useful in working with articulation cases, especially those whose difficulties are not due to structural or organic conditions. Determining which cases are purely functional and which are not should be made by the speech correctionist, since such things as a slight paralysis or a hearing loss might easily be overlooked by the untrained observer. Before initiating speech correction with any pupil, a classroom teacher ought to seek the counsel of the local speech correctionist, or if such a person is not employed by the home school district, such advice should be sought at a speech clinic in a college or university.

The expectancy is that even where a speech correctionist is employed by a local district, classroom teachers should assume responsibility for training many pupils having functional articulatory defects, notably those having slovenly speech, traces of foreign dialect, sound substitution, and sound omission. The speech correctionist can assist the classroom teacher by helping him to identify and classify speech errors, by demonstrating training procedures, and by suggesting suitable drill materials. The teacher's work with these pupils will usually fall into the following sequence:

1. Ear-training to teach a pupil to hear the difference between his incorrect sounds and the same sounds produced correctly by others as well as by himself.
2. Drill in the correct production of defective sounds in isolation and context.
3. Supervision during the regular classroom activities to encourage the consistent use of new speech habits as soon as the pupil has demonstrated that he can use a correct sound easily and accurately in the practice situations.

Although the classroom teacher may well be expected to assume responsibility for training many of the functional articulatory cases, pupils whose difficulties are associated with structural or organic causes must receive more direct attention from the speech correctionist who will probably include them among those whose speech training he does himself. Nevertheless, every classroom teacher who has these pupils has opportunities to help or to interfere with their progress through his attitude toward their problems and his management of classroom routine.

The high-school pupil who has cleft-plate speech frequently offers a difficult adjustment problem. The prominence of the bad cosmetic effect of a scarred lip or irregular dentition which frequently accompanies the palatal deformity may contribute even more to the adjustment problem than the speech itself. After determining the adequacy of the structural condition and making a thorough case study the correctionist will usually begin the speech training at once, since the pupil ordinarily profits from such immediate attention even though improvement in the structural condition can be accomplished later. As soon as possible the correctionist will get the opinions of such specialists as the oral surgeon and the orthodontist in order to learn what structural improvement can be accomplished. The expectancy is that all pupils with cleft-

palate speech will be trained by the speech correctionist. However, the cooperation of the classroom teacher in helping the pupils adjust to their problems is important. Likewise, the regular teacher's help in furnishing suitable speech situations in the classroom and in encouraging the consistent use of newly learned sounds is essential to speech improvement.

#### AID FROM OTHER SOURCES

Pupils whose speech deviations are caused by or are complicated by bad occlusion of the teeth or by other dental irregularities may require the advice of an orthodontist. Establishing such professional contacts should be the responsibility of the speech correctionist. Arranging for necessary orthodontia is important cosmetically and it can contribute as much to improve communication by its effect on the personality as the speech improvement itself. Correction of dental irregularities does not in itself insure more acceptable speech since old habits persist in spite of changes in the structure. Nor does the lack of orthodontic service make speech improvement impossible. In most cases the speech correctionist can bring about a definite change in a pupil's



Speech rides the air stream, and one way a cleft palate child can learn to make it go out the mouth instead of the nose is to blow it into a toy balloon.



speech in spite of unfavorable structure. The participation of the classroom teacher in training the speech of these cases must depend upon the complexity of the problem. In certain instances where the dental deviations are not marked the speech problem can be handled by the regular teachers in the same manner as the functional articulation cases.

When a speech problem is the result of a paralysis there may be an involvement only of the muscles used in speech production, or the condition may be a more general one in which locomotion or use of the arms is affected. In either event the speech correctionist's case study will incorporate the advice of a neurologist and an orthopedic surgeon. Where such arrangements are not made by another school officer or agency, the speech correctionist can search out facilities for physiotherapy. Ideally this work should be done by a regular physiotherapist. However, in some instances the speech correctionist may give exercises recommended by a physical therapist. The speech training for such cases should be done by the correctionist, but again the classroom teacher has an important function in controlling the classroom routine so as to improve the pupil's general adjustment as well as to encourage the use of new speech habits trained by the correctionist.

Stuttering represents one type of speech problem in which proper direction of teacher co-operation is especially critical. The obvious effort a stutterer may make in attempting to express himself frequently prompts the untrained teacher to attempt to help the pupil, sometimes by excusing him from all oral recitation, sometimes by coaching him to inhibit some of the stuttering symptoms, or sometimes by presuming that a device such as breathing in a certain way will improve the speech. These efforts may do the stutterer more harm than good, regardless of the sincerity of the teacher.

Stuttering is a decidedly individual problem which requires careful analysis by a competent correctionist. Once the speech correction teacher is familiar with the needs of a particular stutterer the supervised co-operation of the classroom teacher is an important asset. In many instances the stutterer is asked to speak in a particular manner, either during all the time he speaks or only at times when he has difficulty. The classroom teacher who is informed on what the stutterer should do and why he should do it can make it much easier for the stutterer to apply his speech training most effectively.

#### THE SPEECH CORRECTIONIST'S PART

The speech correction teacher can render many important services in meeting the needs of the hard of hearing pupil. The selection of pupils who have impaired hearing, especially those whose losses are of a minor nature or whose defects involve only one ear, cannot be left to teacher or parent judgment since experience has demonstrated that untrained observers often do not detect slight or incipient losses. Further hearing impairment, as well as the later development of speech and general educational problems, can often be pre-

vented by instituting a testing program by which all pupils are given hearing tests by means of an audiometer at regular intervals.

The speech correctionist is ordinarily qualified to supervise such a testing program or to do the testing himself. Generally it is more economical to have the routine testing done by a school nurse whose salary is less than that of a special teacher, thus saving the more specialized services of the speech correctionist for the followup on hearing problems discovered through the testing program.

The teacher of speech correction can offer training in lip reading and in speech to those hard of hearing pupils who need it. He can also advise the regular teacher on the proper management of acoustically handicapped pupils in the classroom situation. The importance of this last service cannot be stressed too heavily. There is no question but that as many borderline hearing cases get to schools for the deaf because of the lack of small considerations in the classroom, as because of learning problems which could not be avoided as a result of the hearing losses.

At the outset it might appear that having the classroom teacher co-operate with the speech correctionist by taking over the speech training of selected cases and by re-enforcing the training given to the more serious cases by the speech correction teacher might require more time than the regular teacher can give. The decision on the allotment of time must be made on the basis of the relative values of the other things the teacher might do and the importance of speech adjustment to a pupil. However, the demands on a teacher's time need not be excessive if the responsibility is shared by all teachers. Short periods, sometimes only a few minutes each day, are often sufficient to solve functional articulation problems. Co-operating with the correctionist in the classroom management of more serious cases involves no allotment of time, since the teacher's assistance comes simply through better understanding the problem as shown in his attitude toward the pupils concerned and in his general classroom management.

## PART III.—FUNDAMENTAL SPEECH ACTIVITIES

### CHAPTER VI

#### Discussion, Public Speaking, and Debate

KENNETH G. HANCE

*Northwestern University*

**D**ISCUSSION may be conveniently defined as "the co-operative deliberation of problems by persons thinking and conversing together in face-to-face or co-acting groups under the direction of a leader<sup>1</sup>." The two principal types of discussion groups are the learning and the policy-determining—the former designed to assist in the exploration of a problem for the purpose of knowing more about it, the latter resigned to provide the means of securing a solution to a problem. Discussion may be conducted in a face-to-face situation or in a co-acting situation, in which case such methods as the panel discussion, the symposium, the dialogue discussion, and the forum-lecture may be used to advantage.

Public speaking may be defined as "the oral communication of ideas and feelings to others in a co-acting (audience) situation." Whether the audience be large or small, the speech be formal or informal, the purpose be to inform, to convince, to actuate, to impress, or to entertain, the basic principle is the same—a speaker is communicating to an audience.

Debate has been defined as "competitive discourse among two or more advocates who are committed to logically incompatible positions on a specific proposition<sup>2</sup>." Each advocate, in other words, is obligated to present his best possible case (or portion of a case) in support of his point of view on the proposition. His purpose implies persuasion regarding the solution to a problem which he believes to be the best. Whether the form be that of educational debate (*e.g.*, traditional or cross-question) or that of legislative debate under the rules of parliamentary procedure; the ultimate purpose is essentially the same: to determine policy through persuasion.

#### DISCUSSION

As previously noted, discussion is a speech activity which is concerned with the deliberation of problems, the purpose being to learn or to effect a solution. Perhaps the most convenient way to consider this subject is to explore (1) some of the implications of the definition, (2) some of the methods of discussion, (3) some of the specific forms of discussion, and (4) some of the ways in which this activity may contribute to the goals which we have previously considered.

<sup>1</sup>O'Neill, I. M. *Foundations of Speech*. 1941.

<sup>2</sup>McBurney, J. H., and Hance, K. G. *Principles and Methods of Discussion*. 1939. This and other references to discussion are based upon this volume.

*Implications of the Definition*

If discussion is the co-operative deliberation of problems by persons thinking and conversing together in face-to-face or co-acting groups under the direction of a leader, it thus begins with a problem, which may be one of three kinds: fact, value, or policy. A factual problem raises the question, Is this true? That of value raises a question as to the goodness or badness of something, and that of policy is concerned with what should be done in a given situation.

It is apparent, also, from the definition that discussion implies reflective and co-operative deliberation, the process of thinking through a problem without any commitments or predetermined conclusions. In short, the spirit of inquiry is at the heart of the ideal discussion; and that person who maintains the maximum of objectivity and co-operation approaches the ideal in point of view and in participation. Likewise, discussion implies directed deliberation, or the presence of a leader who has the task of helping the group to realize its possibilities in problem solving. The definition also suggests the fact that discussion may be conducted in the face-to-face situation, in which each participant is a potential contributor, or in the co-acting situation, in which there is a well-defined audience and a central source of stimulation to which the listeners are responding. Such methods as the panel discussion and others are designed for this situation. Finally, the definition implies that discussion may be conducted as a learning or as a policy-determining enterprise. In the former case the group explores the problem either for the purpose of developing skills in the discussion process itself or for the purpose of understanding the problem under discussion. In the latter case the group discusses the problem for the purpose of coming to a conclusion which may be the basis of future conduct by this group or by another group to which the decision may be presented.

*Methods of Discussion*

Implicit in the proper concept and conduct of discussion as a useful activity are several methods, three of which may well be considered here. Inasmuch as discussion presupposes adequate preparation, constructive participation, and competent leadership, these three problems are at the heart of the process.

Contrary to the impressions of some uninformed persons, discussion does require thorough preparation; not of the type that leads a participant to take a dogmatic or a final position to be carefully defended, but of the type that prepares him to deliberate competently upon a problem. Ideally this preparation is a continuous process, based upon wide reading and interest in social problems. It also consists of well-defined direct preparation, consisting of specific reading upon a given problem and of the construction of what may be termed a discussion outline. This outline may well be constructed around the five aspects of any problem: definition, analysis, proposal of possible solutions, discovery of tentative solution, and discovery of suggestions for putting the best solution into operation. It should be emphasized that discussion does

not imply "the pooling of ignorance" or the presentation of random observations upon a problem. While its purpose is to promote information and understanding, it presupposes as much preparation as possible. Hence, it pools and correlates information and tentative conclusions, not ignorance.

Participation is also another important factor in good discussion. Inasmuch as the purpose of every discussion is to find the truth in order to solve the problem, it is important to get people to express their ideas in such a way as to contribute to the thinking of the group. Frankness, intellectual honesty, and respect for others are attributes to be desired in discussion; and the teacher and participant should strive to attain them. Similarly, a method of contribution which attempts to report one's thinking on a question is necessary if discussion is to achieve its potentialities.

Leadership, not only with respect to discussion in the more limited sense but also with respect to one's relation to fellow citizens in any co-operative activity, is a third factor. The discussion leader will need to direct his energies toward getting the discussion started effectively, securing thorough deliberation, securing the best possible participation on the part of the members, keeping the discussion clear and well summarized, and handling conflict



Students of The University High School of The State University of Iowa participate in a round-table discussion from Station WSUL.

- skillfully. He will need to be a person with a knowledge of discussion, an alert mind, the ability to diagnose human beings, a high degree of objectivity, and the ability to phrase his thoughts and those of others concisely and clearly. He will be the catalyst, the guiding agent, the co-ordinating force in any good discussion.

### *Specific Forms of Discussion*

The process of discussion may be conducted by and for a small group or by certain persons for the benefit of a larger group, which later participates in a forum period. The former (face-to-face group) is what is commonly termed the round-table; the latter (the co-acting group) may be conducted by means of the panel discussion, the symposium, the dialogue-discussion, and the forum-lecture. The panel discussion is a method in which a few persons (the panel) carry on a discussion in front of an audience, which usually participates later in a question-and-answer period. The symposium is a method in which two or more persons, under the direction of a chairman, present in separate speeches the various phases of a problem. The dialogue-discussion is a method in which two persons, using the question-and-answer method primarily, discuss a problem in front of an audience, which participates later in a period of questions directed at one or both of the speakers. Ordinarily one of the speakers serves as chairman and questioner, and the other as the respondent. The forum-lecture is a method of discussion in which one person presents a speech followed by a question period which is participated in by the audience. The purpose of the lecture is to explore a subject and to inform the audience concerning one or more phases of it.

Implicit in the consideration of the four discussion methods for co-acting groups is the presence of the forum, or question period. This part of the discussion process has at least four principal uses: (1) to permit the audience to secure further information and to correlate ideas upon the problem; (2) to protect the audience from being misled by a presentation which may create erroneous impressions unless subjected to questioning; (3) to permit the introduction of material which might otherwise not be included in the discussion; (4) to give the audience an opportunity to participate.

### *Contribution to the Goals*

In what respect may a knowledge of these principles and methods of discussion, as well as competence in the practice of them, be of use in meeting the social and personal needs? Without attempting to present a carefully documented case for the point of view, one may conclude that discussion may not only make informed and understanding persons and articulate persons but also do much to train the mind and the character. The very act of thinking reflectively according to the logical pattern influences one to think in an orderly manner. There is also training in careful definition and analysis of a problem, including attention to values which are desired in any proposal. In addition, there is careful treatment of proposed solutions; and there is reasoning as to

their validity. The very process of reflective thinking forces one to phrase his thoughts exactly, and the process of group deliberation encourages economical and exact phrasing in order to make one's contributions clear and meaningful to the group. Similarly, discussion should aid in training the character. Reflective thinking requires keenness of mind in order to penetrate into a problem to determine its causes and to speculate as to the solutions. Tolerance and compassion can be cultivated through discussion if anywhere. Participation in a group where ideas are presented and rejected in a spirit of co-operative search for a solution to a problem should produce at least some measure of concern for the attitudes of other persons. Finally, discussion should cultivate a fine balance of initiative and concern for others. It means co-operation and group responsibility, and it should exert an influence in the direction of a balance between individualism in thinking and group effort in pooling contributions toward a common outcome. In short, discussion serves a useful purpose in introducing the student to vital problems and in developing critical and co-operative attitudes toward the ideas which he attempts to communicate to others, with whom he is working to achieve satisfactory solutions to these problems.

#### PUBLIC SPEAKING

As previously noted, public speaking may be defined as the oral communication of ideas and feelings to others in an audience situation. The purpose may be to inform, to convince, to actuate, to impress, or to entertain. Whatever the purpose, the important business of the speaker is to have something to say and to say it effectively in order to influence others in desirable directions. Genuine public speaking, as well as training designed to effect competence in speaking, should be based upon thorough knowledge of the subject, upon character that is honest and sincere, and upon respect for one's audience—the classical factors of information, character, and good-will.

This conception of public speaking, which originated with Aristotle and which has been advocated by the great teachers of virtually all ages, conceives of public address as more than mere delivery or embellishment. It includes five constituents; namely, invention, arrangement, style, delivery, and memory, each of which deserves some comment here. Together, these constitute the rationale of good public speaking.

#### *Invention*

Invention is that constituent which is concerned with the theme and its supporting materials, with the modes of persuasion in the speech, and with those factors which border upon audience analysis. This constituent deals with those elements which give substance and solidity to the speech. A thorough study and application of the principles of invention embodies detailed analysis of the principal topics associated with each of the five types of speaking, particularly the means of analysis and development of each type of subject. Even more important, it leads to a consideration of the three modes of per-



suation: (1) that which arises from the character of the speaker (ethical), (2) that which consists of emotional appeals, and (3) that which is related to logical development, argumentative or expository.

Ethical persuasion relates to the impact of the speaker upon his hearers, an impact that is good in the degree that the speaker gives evidence of being competent, of good character, and with an attitude of good-will toward his audience, an impact that arises from the speaker's reputation, his person, and his speech composition. Emotional persuasion is concerned with the means of gaining responses by appeals to such emotions as pity and fear in order that impetus and power may be given to the arguments of the speaker. Logical argument refers to the means of developing an expository subject or of advancing support of a proposition. It consists of principles governing facts and expert opinions used as evidence, and of those pertaining to the modes of reasoning by induction or deduction. The nature of each of these factors in proof, the tests of validity, and the nature of error in their use are all incorporated in the rationale of logical argument. Another factor of importance in invention is audience analysis, or the treatment of those matters in the auditor to be considered by one who wishes to achieve a favorable response. Also, a complete rhetoric does not neglect considerations of proofs or of the relations of the speaker, speech, and audience. It conceives of rhetoric as being more than sophistry or "show;" it is the serious business of proofs and interaction between the speaker's message and an audience.

#### *Arrangement*

This point of view, however, does not neglect the other constituents, one of which is arrangement, that factor which is concerned with the parts of the speech: introduction, body, and conclusion. Here attention is drawn to the purposes of the opening of the speech, together with the means of introduction (narrative, question, or statement of theme) and with the means of effecting a transition to the body. Attention is also drawn to the body, to its purposes, and to the means of developing expository and argumentative themes. Likewise, attention is paid to the conclusion, to its purposes, and to the means of development (summary, application, or motivation). In essence, this constituent of rhetoric treats of the ordering of those materials which have been selected according to the principles of invention.

#### *Style*

This complete body of rhetorical principles also advances theories of style regarding word choice or word combination. Here one is directed to principles of sentence structure, to factors of concreteness, to figures of speech, and to similar items in the process of phrasing materials which have been selected and arranged.

#### *Delivery and Memory*

This complete rhetoric also treats of delivery, oral and visible expression. In addition, it includes memory in both its limited and its broad aspects. In

the former the student is acquainted with the principles of mnemonics or word memory, and in the latter with principles of general preparation or the acquisition of a body of materials in broad categories which can be drawn upon in the specific preparation of a speech.

Thus conceived, training in public speaking is broad and thorough. It is more than training in style or delivery; it places proper emphasis upon the subject matter of the speech, and it places great weight upon those ethical and psychological principles that should be brought to bear upon communication. It is thus more than a study of embellishment, of making sounds, of exhibiting graceful movements, or of securing glib recitals of perhaps specious arguments.

What can training in this type of public speaking do for a student? Clearly, it should develop competence in the fundamentals of speech: voice, bodily action, diction, construction, and style. It trains the student to grapple with a problem, analyze it, organize materials concerning it, and communicate these materials in the best possible manner. It should develop desirable qualities of character because of its stress upon the factors of ethical persuasion and upon the rigorous application of logical factors to the proofs of the speech. Clearly, it should develop the many qualities of leadership which are vitally necessary in a democratic society.

#### DEBATE

As previously noted, debate is a speech activity which is concerned with advocacy; it consists of the presentation of cases pertaining to propositions. Whatever the form of debate, or its relation to discussion and public speaking, certain considerations and problems exist; and the student of this phase of speech activity may well explore them. He should note, for instance, that educational debate is designed to train *advocates* (a natural and very necessary procedure in a democratic society) and that it is a useful training for all citizens, not only those in the law or in public positions. The ability to present a case with clarity and conviction is an accomplishment worthy of any person's attention; and educators would do well to encourage the proper training of advocates as well as of persons skilled in deliberation, or discussion. After all, every person has occasion to become an advocate; and the proper training of the advocate, including the knowledge of *when* to be an advocate, is highly important.

It is perhaps unnecessary to observe here that debate training, properly conceived, embodies a full consideration of all of the constituents previously associated with the ideal type of rhetorical training (invention, arrangement, style, delivery, and memory). It is certainly not training in artifice, in delivery alone, or in mere embellishments. Rather, it places invention in its proper central position and thoroughly explores all of its elements.

Perhaps the most convenient way to consider the subject of debate is to explore (1) some problems of preparation common to all forms of debate,

(2) some special problems of preparation for each of several types of debate, and (3) the relations of parliamentary procedure to debate.

*Problems Common to all Forms of Debate*

The student of debate will need to explore such topics as, the proposition, investigation, analysis, synthesis (case), proofs, and attack-and-defense. Just as discussion begins with problems, so debate has its inception in a proposition—a statement of judgment, which may be one of fact, value, or policy.

Investigation, which is designed to acquaint oneself with the ramifications of the proposition, usually can best be conducted by means of the Investigation Sheet or Self-Questioning Sheet. This instrument can well consist of a number of questions grouped under such headings as: definition of terms, background, the *status quo*, the proposal of the affirmative, and alternatives (the last three items being, of course, particularly applicable to propositions of policy). If carefully prepared, this instrument should provide one with a comprehensive survey of all aspects of the proposition and should lead quite inevitably into the analysis stage of preparation, wherein one attempts to discover the issues.

Analysis can profitably be conducted along the line of the so-called stock issues, or categories of thought common to all subjects for debate. For instance, one may begin his analysis with a consideration of the stock issue: Is there a need for a change? He may then proceed to the issue: Is the affirmative proposal a satisfactory change? Then to the issue: Is this proposal the best change? From these stock issues he may proceed to the phrasing of general issues pertinent to the specific proposition, then refine these issues down to sub-issues of such degree as he may wish.

Synthesis, or case construction, can well be conducted in the light of an understanding of the proof requirements of both affirmative and negative, and of the types of cases which can be designed to uphold these proof requirements. In particular, the negative cases of pure refutation, defense of the *status quo*, attack on the affirmative proposal, "repairs," and counter-proposal will need to be considered in detail. At this point the construction of an argumentative outline will prove to be useful, perhaps even necessary.

The arraying of proofs will lead to a consideration of evidence and reasoning, together with the use of all of the standard bodies of information pertaining to these materials. Similarly, there will inevitably be a thorough study of the available means of attack-and-defense, with respect to both broad method and specific means of approach and organization. In particular, one will need to explore fallacies in reasoning, errors in the use of evidence, and such special methods of attack-and-defense as rejecting arguments, matching arguments, using arguments, and refuting arguments.

*Problems Common to Types of Debate*

Debate as a process of thinking and speaking may be conducted in a variety of ways. In educational circles the form commonly thought of is that in which two teams are arrayed as affirmative and negative, with certain sequences of

speeches (constructive and rebuttal) being provided. This educational debate may be observed in the traditional form of one constructive and one rebuttal speech for each debater; in the cross-question form of constructive speeches, cross-questioning, and rejoinders; and in such variations as the problem-solving debate, legislative assemblies, and the like. In any case the debater will need to conduct his preparation as previously suggested, prepare speeches of such character and length as the type of debate indicates, and prepare material of attack-and-defense for rebuttal speeches or for question-and-answer procedures.

Outside of the educational process, debate is observed in deliberative bodies, the form usually being termed parliamentary debate. Here there may be no array of teams as in educational debate, but all of the elements of advocacy and of clash will be present. As in the educational types, the premium will be placed upon thorough preparation, complete case construction and support, and thorough study of attack-and-defense.

#### *Relation of Parliamentary Procedure to Debate*

An integral part of parliamentary debate is not only the practice of advocacy of one's side of a given proposition but also the practice of what is commonly termed parliamentary procedure, or the methods of conducting business in a deliberative assembly. It is important that parliamentary procedure be regarded not as an end in itself, or as a body of materials designed to restrict the activities of a group, but as a means to the orderly conduct of business in a *democratic* manner. It is also important to note that every rule and every item of procedure is designed to secure and promote such democratic principles as order, fairness to all, will of the majority, protection of the minority, and thorough deliberation before action. In short, the parliamentary form of procedure is based upon something deeper than a set of mechanical rules for the conducting of business. Underlying it is a fundamental philosophy which is essentially identical for all types of organization functioning in the democratic manner.

The student of debate and parliamentary procedure will need to study the basic principles of parliamentary law, the general classifications of motions, the motions in each classification, the purposes of each motion, and the specific regulations governing each motion. In addition, he will need to familiarize himself with the many privileges and responsibilities of a member of a parliamentary assembly. He will want to understand the meaning of such privileges as those of free participation in debate and of opposition and protest. He will also want to become aware of such obligations as those of frank and earnest participation and of accepting, at least for the time being, the decisions of the group as binding upon his own actions. Only thus will he become a skillful practitioner of both the letter and the spirit of one of the essential procedures of a *democratic society*.

The contribution of knowledge of, and competence in the practice of, these principles of debate to the task of meeting the social and personal needs is obvious. A brief synthesis may thus suffice at this point.

It is quite self-evident that training in debate as here outlined should prepare competent advocates, persons skilled in the processes of investigation, analysis, case construction, and defense of one's position. It should make persons articulate, well informed, and aware of those character and personality traits that go far in making advocates acceptable to their listeners. In addition, competence in debate, together with the willingness to make use of the resources of debate, will tend to make those practicing it capable members of a society that will represent a happy medium between the poles of anarchy and dictatorship. This will be true for the reason that a society composed of such persons will reflect the popular will, but at the same time will be comparatively free from both ignorance and the unrestricted use of propaganda.

THE ORGANIZATION AND CONDUCT OF CLASSROOM PROGRAMS IN DISCUSSION,  
PUBLIC SPEAKING, AND DEBATE

While classroom procedures pertaining to these aspects of speech will, of course, vary in terms of the interests of the teachers, there are certain broad outlines that may suggest points of emphasis at least.

*Discussion*

A classroom course in discussion constructed according to the point of view previously described will probably consist of lectures, classroom recitations, discussions, and quizzes. Through the medium of lectures, textbook readings, and classroom recitations based upon the lectures and readings, the students will be acquainted with the important principles and methods of discussion. Among these topics will be: the nature of discussion, the purpose of discussion, the values and limitations of discussion, occasions for discussion, problems for discussion, preparing for discussion, participating in discussion, leading discussion, the role of facts and expert opinions in discussion, the logical pattern of discussion; the modes of reasoning in discussion, obstacles to reflective thinking, resolving conflict in discussion, discussion in learning and in policy-determining groups, and special methods of discussion—the panel, symposium, dialogue, and forum-lecture.

Experience has shown that inasmuch as the students learn by doing, provided they have both competent direction and criticism, considerable time should be devoted to actual work in discussion. Consequently, ample opportunity should be provided for both the round-table and the co-acting methods, with considerable emphasis upon the former, because of the values of the abundant practice which this method affords and because of the fact that it is the form taken by committees, boards of directors, and other bodies in which the student will probably find himself frequently in after-school life.

With these assumptions and principles in view, the following use of a five day per week allotment of time may be most useful: (1) Devote the first

and perhaps the second period to a study of the theory of discussion, probably considering in order the topics named above. The work of these two periods may take the form of lectures, recitations, working of exercises and problems, and analyses of discussions which the students have observed or the scripts of which they have read. (2) Devote the third period to a demonstration panel-discussion, symposium, dialogue, or forum-lecture, a forum or question-and-answer period to be included in each instance. It is assumed that at least a few minutes will be reserved for a critique by the teacher and perhaps by one or more students. (3) Devote the fourth and fifth periods (better yet, a two-hour period on one day if the schedule should permit) to round-table discussions in which all members of the class can participate. If the class numbers more than ten persons, it will be well to divide the total into two or more groups in order that the round-table will not become unwieldy. If possible, each group should meet in a separate room, although two or more groups have carried on entirely adequate discussions in a classroom of the typical size. On some occasions it may be advisable to direct each group, if two or more round-tables are meeting concurrently, to select a member to prepare and present to the entire class a brief report of the deliberations of his group. In this way the reporter will receive practice in reproducing the steps in reflective thinking covered by the round-table; and, in addition, the members of other groups will have the benefit of knowing what transpired in each of the several round-tables. Again, it is assumed that time will be reserved for comments by the teacher, who perhaps spent all of his time with one group or perhaps divided his time among the groups meeting concurrently.

The problems selected for discussion in both the face-to-face and the co-acting situations will, of course, vary with the interests of the teacher and the students, the issues of the hour in school life, and the more important social questions of the hour. It may be well to begin with problems on the personal interest level and move out to those of more profound social significance; but, again, individual circumstances and purposes may suggest other procedures. In any event, the students should be encouraged, even required, to observe high standards of preparation and participation irrespective of the level of the problem selected for discussion.

### *Public Speaking*

A classroom course in public speaking constructed according to the point of view previously described will probably consist of lectures, classroom recitations, speeches, and quizzes. As previously suggested in the case of a course in discussion, the body of principles will be presented by means of lectures and demonstrations by the teacher and by means of textbook readings and recitations based upon these readings. Probably such topics as the following should be included: the nature of public speaking and its place in everyday life; some basic principles of speech; problems of confidences and poise; directness; bodily action; the voice; finding, choosing, and arranging materials; the



introduction; the body (exposition, argument, persuasion); the conclusion; some problems of style; and special types of speeches.

If it be assumed that students learn most fully by actual speaking with criticism, considerable time should be devoted to speechmaking and to allied exercises on the platform. In all probability the use of single speeches, rather than forms of discussion like the panel and the dialogue, will prove to be of the maximum value inasmuch as this type of exercise will bring to bear all of the factors of delivery and composition which are of particular concern in public speaking.

With these assumptions in mind, the following use of the five periods per week may prove satisfactory: (1) devote not more than two periods to lectures by the teacher, recitations, quizzes, and work on other matters of theory; (2) devote at least three periods to organized programs of speeches, with at least seven students appearing on the platform each period. While, of course, many types of speeches, together with many subjects, are available for these programs, the following suggestions may indicate one possible direction which the work may take:

*Speech 1.*—Self-introduction (name; other personal details; brief biography, including interests).

*Speech 2.*—Personal experience (designed to encourage self-expression on a familiar subject).

*Speech 3.*—Description and appraisal of a speaker (designed to encourage observation of speakers and to set up standards of appraisal).

*Speech 4.*—Presentation of a point of view (designed to reveal attitudes and to encourage thinking on controversial subjects).

*Speech 5.*—Demonstration of a process (designed to develop proficiency in exposition and in the use of articles which can be handled).

*Speech 6.*—Lay-out (designed to develop proficiency in the use of bodily action—walking, use of hands and arms).

*Speech 7.*—"Light-torch" (described in Sarett and Foster, *Basic Principles of Speech*,<sup>2</sup> designed to develop vocal variety, directness, and ease.)

*Speech 8.*—"Sky-rocket" (also described by Sarett and Foster; designed to develop those factors mentioned above, also proficiency in narrative, descriptive, and argumentative speaking).

Other speeches may include heckling situations, open-forum periods, short debates, blackboard demonstrations, and projects using various kinds of visual aids, e.g., maps, pictures, drawings, and charts.

In any event, experience has shown that if the speech assignments represent a progression with respect to difficulty and to standards of criticism, the students will be constantly carried to new levels of effort. Each new speech will thus be a new challenge, not just another platform assignment; and in addition, all of the factors covered in the textbook will eventually be included in the scope of the assignments and be incorporated in the critiques of the teacher.

<sup>2</sup>Sarett, Lew, and Foster, Wm. T. *Basic Principles of Speech*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co. 1936.



### *Debate*

A classroom course in debate constructed according to the point of view previously described will probably consist of lectures, classroom recitations, single speeches, debates, and quizzes. As previously suggested, the body of principles will be presented by means of lectures and demonstrations by the teacher and by means of textbook readings and recitations based upon these readings. Probably such topics as the following should be included: the nature of argumentation and debate and their place in everyday life, the proposition, investigation, analysis, case, outlining, evidence, reasoning, fallacies, composing argument, meeting arguments (refutation), delivery, types of debate.

If it be assumed, as in the case of public speaking, that considerable time should be devoted to speechmaking on the platform, the course in debate should probably devote at least three periods per week to this type of activity. Experience has found that individual speeches of advocacy are probably the most profitable as starting points for this course. These will inevitably lead into statements of difference of opinion, with the result that debates on vital propositions will emerge with little or no apparent effort. These debates may be in the traditional form (constructive and rebuttal speeches) or in such variations as the cross-question and legislative types, until the students have become somewhat familiar with the basic principles of debate. At this point there may well be experimentation with the various forms of debate in order that the advantages and disadvantages of each, together with the special problems of each, may be explored through actual participation. As in the case of the assignments in discussion, the propositions for debate may well vary with the interests of the teacher and the students, the issues of the hour in school life, and the more important social questions in national life.

In the event that the course in debate should be conceived as being the training ground for the varsity debaters of the school, it may be well to erect a program that will dovetail with the proposition selected for interscholastic debate. In this case some sequence of assignments similar to the procedures employed in the conduct of an extracurriculum program in debate may prove to be useful. Perhaps one of the most satisfactory will be that described in "Adapting 'The Teaching Cycle' to Debate" by Kenneth G. Hance,<sup>4</sup> in which a series of projects readily adapted to either a class or a debate squad is described in detail.

Either as a separate project or, better, as an integral part of projects in conjunction with legislative debate, abundant opportunity should be provided for practice in parliamentary procedure. Through the medium of legislative debate, which centers in a proposition (a motion), the students may gain competence in the mechanical aspects of parliamentary law and also may gain an appreciation of the important democratic principles underlying this activity.

<sup>4</sup>*Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXX. 1944. Pp. 444-452.

## CHAPTER VII

### The Oral Reading Program

WILLADELL ALLEN

*Park Ridge, Illinois, High School*

**A**LTHOUGH oral reading is as old as education and teaching, and although its immediate objectives have changed from generation to generation, it has always brought pleasure and profit to reader and listener. Oral reading today has one ultimate objective—to offer opportunity for growth in personality. To read orally demands *total participation* of the student in the activity. This total participation is in turn dependent upon the student's ability to observe, to imagine, to remember, to extract meaning from printed words, and to transmit meaning to others. He must re-create what he gleans from the printed page. In this process of re-creation he has accepted a responsibility to those who listen. The listener or listeners must not be bored. Listeners need not necessarily be entertained but they must be interested! The acceptance of the responsibility of reading to others is certainly a step forward in personality growth. In addition, the greater the number of vicarious experiences which the student has in the oral reading program, the greater the number of facets there will be in his personality. The total participation demanded by oral reading gives added meaning and feeling to those vicarious experiences over and above those gained from silent reading.

The immediate objective of the oral reading program is to develop skill in reading aloud. Oral reading is one of the most useful arts in society. From the bed-time story you may read to your children to the radio adaptation of great books, skill in oral reading is one of the essentials of modern life. It is the firm conviction of teachers of oral reading that those who were fortunate enough to have had the characters of childhood stories become real people through the reading of parents or teachers are more apt to become lovers of good literature. Skill in oral reading promotes and perpetuates the best in literature.

Oral reading also serves our everyday affairs in a functional manner. The person who reads aloud with skill is often a good speaker and a good conversationalist, because the elements of good oral reading are basic to good speech and to good conversation. The student may not be interested in becoming a so-called professional reader, but he is interested in communication of thought. The oral reading program is a means of communicating ideas, as well as a means of interpreting the ideas of others. The newspapers, the magazine, the minutes of the club meeting become more than mere words to those who read aloud effectively.

Today there is an emphasis upon communal activity. We are striving to bring the school into the community and the community into the school. What better means than through oral reading? What better service can we

give than to bring literature to the listener? The school program, the town meeting, and the radio are all excellent outlets for the oral reading of good literature. Let us encourage teachers and students to use their talents in the selection of the responsibility for, and the skillful interpretation of, good literature in the home, the school, and the community.

Teachers of oral reading have no desire to put silent reading on the shelf. Those who believe fervently that there is educational justification in oral reading, have no quarrel with silent reading. There must be *both* oral and silent reading. When one is emphasized at the expense of the other, the student is the loser. Both processes involve getting the meaning from the printed page. The oral reader, by use of a trained human voice, demonstrates that he gets the nuances of emotional subtleties as well as the bare factual meaning from the printed page. Recent Army tests show that training in the full appreciation of what is read would have been more helpful to high-school graduates than an overemphasis on speed of reading.

It is a foregone conclusion to say that we are living in an age of the spoken word. Any subject in the school system that contributes to effective oral communication may be justified. Oral reading, or oral interpretation, offers one of the greatest, if not the greatest, motivations for improving speech skills and making communication more effective.

#### NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT IN VOCABULARY AND PRONUNCIATION

There is the need for improvement in vocabulary, and the best way to achieve this is to read words aloud in their context, as used by the great writers. The reading vocabulary as is well known, is ordinarily larger than the one used in speaking. When a word is read over and over in the interests of communication, it becomes as much the property of the reader as of the author. There are those who question the value of a vocabulary study of isolated words. It takes words put together by people who have something to say and the words with which to say it, to give pupils the proper respect for this basic medium of communication. Students do not stretch their speaking vocabulary by merely seeing words.

The value of oral reading as a means of acquiring acceptable pronunciation is not to be minimized. To hear the average American read at sight, or even after some preparation, a paragraph from a book or magazine is painful. There is no place in the school system where American pronunciation can be better emphasized and taught than in oral reading, for there is more to good pronunciation than the formation of individual words in isolation. Since the advent of the radio and talking pictures, America has become conscious of voice and diction. English is a beautiful language. Most English speaking people have some pride in this knowledge, but pride has not driven us to the use of beautiful language. Each word should have its appropriate pronunciation in connected speech. To do this requires more vocal skill than to pronounce a single word.

The value of oral reading for developing a sense of the logic and rhythm of the sentence, cannot be questioned. Too many pupils get lost in the maze of words when they read either silently or orally. When they read aloud, they can more readily discover where the trouble lies, and they then can learn to phrase, subordinate, and accentuate until the sentence becomes clear. This training ordinarily carries over into silent reading and oral speech. Teachers may say, "This is all very well, but how can we find time to let every pupil read aloud for periods long enough to train him in all these objectives?" A great deal can be done by group participation even in development of specific techniques.

The ultimate result of training in interpretative reading is that the student comes to realize the need for speech skills. Much of the good literature cannot be read with colloquial diction. It demands careful and skillful pronunciation. In addition, the varieties of characterizations, the rhythms, and the shades of meaning demand vocal flexibility. Moreover, such training helps the student to realize the advantage of such skill for use in his everyday communication.

Although the time needed to bring this type of training to each student is not excessive, there is a type of training in oral reading which will economize learning time. That is choral reading. To many it is an end in itself while to others it is a teaching device. By accepting the latter viewpoint, the teacher may use it primarily to economize teaching time; but when choral reading is used in interpretation of dramatic literature, it may develop into one of the most stimulating of the speech arts. There is a growing tendency to study interpretation in this way. It well may be the link between acting and interpretative reading.

#### AESTHETIC EXPERIENCE IN ORAL READING

In the beginning of this discussion, it was stated that the first objective in teaching oral reading was to afford opportunity for growth in personality. The practical skills involved in this program have been discussed. But there is an aesthetic side to every personality. What will the art of oral reading do for that? There are two types of significant aesthetic experiences in oral reading.

The first of these is educating the emotions. The oral reader often touches life fully and completely in his reading. The sense of mastery, the feeling of self-reliance, and the faith in himself that the reader achieves in emotional control are the most valued and treasured of all experiences. The feeling of personal satisfaction which comes from a well-read story or poem is a gratifying experience. All readers may not enjoy this aesthetic experience, no more than do all musicians and painters in their field; but those whose talents make such experience possible should not be deprived of the opportunity of growth.

Another aesthetic experience which all oral readers can claim is that of deep appreciation of the dignity and significance of language. This appreciation comes primarily through an understanding of the factors that contribute to the expression of language. Oral reading demands a study and

understanding of the linguistic arts. Such study should also make its contribution to other subjects. History and sociology are implemented by a consideration of social changes as they are reflected in the language of various periods of the world's story.

Oral reading will not solve the speech problems of the world. It will not solve the speech problems of all students. But it will reduce the number of problems, heighten the communicative interest and ability of the students, foster the development of citizens capable of getting unwarped meaning from the printed page, and produce artists in the field of reading. Man does not live by bread alone. Man's art is the food of the soul and it must be fed. Better reading may help feed the spirit. Guizot once said, in relating art to man in general:

The study of art possesses this great and peculiar charm, that it is absolutely unconnected with the struggles and contests of ordinary life. By private means and by political questions, men are deeply divided and set at variance; but beyond and above such party strifes, they are attracted and united by a taste for the beautiful in art. It is a taste at once engrossing and unselfish, which may be indulged without effort and yet has the power of exciting the deepest emotions—a taste able to exercise and to gratify both the nobler and the softer parts of our nature—the imagination and the judgment, love of emotion and power of reflection, the enthusiasm and the critical faculty, the senses and the reason.

Whether the oral reading is for our children at our fireside or for an audience of thousands, it should be an experience in art—the art of understanding and sharing the meaning of the printed page with our friends.

## CHAPTER VIII

### Dramatics

#### I. DRAMATIC ART IN THE HIGH SCHOOL by

ERNEST BAVELY, *Chairman, of the Secondary-School Committee, of the American Educational Theatre Association*

**N**OWHERE else in the world is there anything comparable to what we here in America call the "high-school theatre." It is an institution that is, in the truest sense, peculiarly American, a product of our democratic system of life and education. Of our 28,000 public and private secondary schools, few do not, at one time or another during the season, sponsor some form of dramatic presentation. Such a production may take the form of an assembly one-act play produced in observance of a holiday such as Thanksgiving, Christmas, or Easter; it may be a three-act comedy or drama given before a paid audience; or it may be a pageant presented during commencement week, giving emphasis to American ideals and traditions. Audiences at these performances include children, parents, and townspeople seeking entertainment and relaxation. Paid admissions number more than those of our community theatres, college theatre, professional theatres, or of all of them combined. Only the motion pictures can boast a larger attendance. For thousands of our cities and town, the high-school theatre is the only "flesh and blood" entertainment available to our people.

These facts give some indication of the contributions which the high-school theatre renders the nation today. But it is erroneous to assume that its full potentialities are being utilized. The educational, social, and cultural values found in a well-established and well-managed high-school theatre program are tremendous. It is these values which need to be more widely recognized and utilized in the educational process.

The material found in this chapter is a contribution of the Secondary School Committee of the American Educational Theatre Association. Obvious space limitations did not give the committee the opportunity to discuss fully the wide range of wholesome and educationally desirable contributions found in the well-organized high-school dramatic art program. The information found in the following pages will, however, give some indication of the nature and scope of these contributions. The committee also thought it desirable to include some discussion pertinent to the selection and production of the high-school play. Lastly, the committee felt a definite need for bringing this chapter to a close with a discussion of ways in which the average high-school program in dramatic arts may be more effectively established as an integral part of our educational process.

## II. DRAMATICS AND MASTERY OF FUNDAMENTAL SPEECH SKILLS by

KATHERINE ANNE OMMANNEY of the *North Side School of Denver*

THE thrill of having a part in a major school play is a powerful incentive to most students to master the skills involved which center about the effective use of the body and voice. Working in a successful production is a co-operative and creative experience in real living which fully justifies the very tangible rewards in personal development and prestige, providing, of course, that the lines are worth memorizing and the characters worth living with for weeks of concentrated effort. The strenuous rehearsal period affords the members of the cast the opportunity of constant practice in moving and speaking correctly which should make a lasting impression on them. Naturally more detailed training can be given in a well-organized dramatics class. Most coaches prefer using actors in public performances who have had the daily drill, but on the other hand, such productions give students who have been unable to take specialized classwork the training they would likewise miss. Whatever the situation, the young people should move and speak well after having taken a dramatics class or appeared in a play.

Most students say they take dramatics "to get poise" and usually they feel they succeed in doing so. This is because relaxation is the basis of both physical and vocal control, which in turn acts upon mental attitudes and lessens nervous tension. This interrelation of voice, body, and mind definitely affects our personalities in real life as well as characterization on the stage. Creating a convincing character in a play depends upon the careful analysis of person and environment to determine the proper voice and actions to be assumed. Actors soon become interested in learning how to use the tools of acting. Then when they appear in a play before an audience, perhaps only a class project, they gain assurance which they know is due to their mastery of fundamental techniques.

In theatrical training, pantomime, the first step, develops graceful carriage, expressive faces, and effective gestures; so-called "voice work," the second step, develops carrying power, flexibility and beauty of tone, and cultivated speech.

However, an actor must lose himself in his character to be convincing and understand the lines he speaks to inspire the emotional response, so intrinsically a part of the aesthetic experience of the theatre. The voice and body react instantly to sincere emotion if they have been freed by sound technical training. Actors should follow a daily schedule of vocal and physical exercises, entirely apart from rehearsals; technique must never be made an aim in itself but merely the means through which the imagination, intelligence, and emotions can function. Self-consciousness and affection can easily result from too much emphasis on technique. Adolescents especially should give first consideration



to the meaning of lines, the realization of ideas, and the understanding of character and play.

Everyone will agree that our students should move and speak well, but the question of diction is still debatable. The secondary-school dramatics teacher should strive for clear, correct, pleasing speech, probably shaded but not obscured by sectional characteristics. The writer personally does not feel that the public schools should emphasize training for the professional theatre but she does believe that any talented students looking toward a stage or radio career should learn exactly what acceptable stage speech is and learn to use it if they wish to do so. Otherwise they may later be seriously handicapped by colloquial speech or, even worse, by a conglomeration of incorrect affectations.

For the average students, the public schools have a special mission today as global travel will soon be greatly increased. Our training should encourage well-modulated conversational tone and correct speech in order that young people may be prepared vocally as well as politically for international co-operation.

Theatrical techniques develop not only individual skills but co-operative abilities, for an actor must work successfully with the other members of the cast to get the desired responses from the people in the audience. A dramatics class is great fun because speech fundamentals can be stressed in spontaneous group



Scene from *UNDER THE GASLIGHT* as given by dramatics students of the Bloomington, Illinois, High School (Thespian Troupe 131) under the direction of Geneva Allen. (Photograph courtesy **DRAMATICS MAGAZINE**.)

activity which furnishes keen entertainment to performers and onlookers alike. Then, when the skills have been understood and partially mastered, painstaking, intelligent presentation of individual and group projects culminating in a one-act play assigned by the teacher can afford the opportunity, so relished by adolescents, of striving for perfection. The members of the class thus learn to distinguish between mere superficial exhibitionism and true artistry.

However, it is the public performance which drives home the value of the speech skills. The cast should be selected with careful consideration of their physical and vocal equipment and correct pronunciations and inflections should be crystalized in the first reading rehearsal. In the business rehearsals the action is worked out. Before the polishing rehearsals begin, every actor should be speaking distinctly and moving in character. Only then can students begin to utilize the special techniques of acting by means of which characters come to life, the author's meanings are clarified, and the play becomes an adventure in living.

Dramatics does afford a rich opportunity for the mastery of speech skills not to be ignored in any modern school system which encourages student activity based upon the needs and desires of young people while presenting subject matter containing sound material leading to spiritual inspiration and artistic achievement.

### III. DRAMATICS AND MOTION PICTURE APPRECIATION by

HAROLD TURNEY, *Chairman of the Department of Drama of Los Angeles City College*

**A**N adventure in school dramatics, whether as an actor or as a technician, changes the viewpoint of a young person toward the motion picture. Previously he has been a member of a usual audience, watching the film-showing objectively, enjoying the story and the efforts of one or two of his favorite actors. But with his participation in dramatics, he abandons a seat in the auditorium and enters spiritually the magic realm behind the footlights, behind the camera. From that moment onward, as long as he lives, his perspective shifts to a subjective attitude. He claims a relationship even to the cast members enacting the minor roles. His vicarious experience, formerly resulting from a presentation of the character in conflict, now adds the actor portraying that character. He places himself, not only in the character's position, but in the actor's as well and appreciates the player's problems of sustaining and protecting a believable character, of telling a logical story, of holding the interest of the audience. He is a member of a vast army of thespians in which, in his estimation, there is no discrimination between professional and amateur. As his experiences in dramatics grow, the more his life becomes enriched; stimulated mentally, educationally, socially, and spiritually.

Recognizing the film-play as a medium of tremendous power to move great masses, he develops rapidly a keen knowledge of its position in the arts and subsequently it becomes a job to be well done; a profession and an

industry. He ceases to accept a motion picture theater as "a swell place to kill time"; realizes the film-form as an important factor in the better living together of peoples of all nationalities. He sees the film in a new light, broader, more serious in its aims and aspects of entertainment and education.

So as to make his attendance of greater value, the student of dramatics is inclined to "shop" for his movies, considering the story and its original source, the producing studio, the director, the cameraman, and the supporting players. He understands that there are additional phases to consider besides the appearance of highly publicized stars.

This evaluation carries over into the film-showing; the title credits are of greater interest. He studies avidly the lengthy form on the screen; occasionally expresses a desire to read them again after the exhibition; often pauses outside the theater to contemplate the assortment of personalities listed on the advertising posters. His conversation with companions features outstanding moments of photography or camera angles, or set design, or the characterization of a bit player. His remarks are more concrete than the usual, "Van Johnson's cute!"

Remembering the time-worn adage of the theater, "two backstage to one on-stage," the school player appreciates the vast amount of activity that goes into a production, be it a stage play, a film, a radio show, or a televised performance. He envisions the workers behind the camera as he has been a worker behind the proscenium arch and his emphatic response is multitudinous in its ramifications. Simultaneously he becomes the director moving the players about the settings, dictating general and personal business pertinent to the action, grouping the actors into artistic relationships and pictures, checking the delivery and interpretation of dialogue and characterization, building suspense. He steps into the position of the cameraman photographing the action, the electrician lighting the scene, the engineer recording the sound, as well as the actor playing the role.

#### APPRECIATIONS DEVELOPED

Thus, in full accord with the contributions of the technicians, he becomes more alert to methods of achieving results and in turn more critical of performances and production values. He is quick to recognize discrepancies, to determine a more effective way of accomplishing a better result. He receives more for his time and money than the nonparticipant in dramatics. His vicarious experience is greater, his emotional response deeper.

Into his viewing of the film he throws his knowledge of dramatic construction already gained from a participation in dramatics—the exposition of locale, time, atmosphere, mood, characters, and antecedent events; the statement and development of conflict; crises and climaxes: resolution. The methods employed by the medium become of greater significance; he values the use of sudden cuts and slow fades to subdivide the story into small units; the inclusion of montage to bridge time; the application of cuts into long, medium,

and close shots and of panning and trucking to renew and quicken audience interest and participation.

Beginning with casting, makeup, and costuming, the student actor also examines intently the technical phases in the art of acting—the correct body patterns, the effective use of arms and hands for character in action, the projection of facial expressions under duress of emotion in situation, the submersion of the player's personality into the personality of the character being portrayed, the employment of the voice in the delivery and interpretation of dialogue, the building of characterization.

Having attained proficiency in speaking dialogue (short, crisp, telling sentences and paragraphs) the participant in school plays recognizes the playwright's and actor's attempt to project the story to the audience as quickly and as forcibly as possible, telescoping events, compressing action into a few short scenes in the medium of dramatic story presentation. He has learned the theatre's way to narrate a story!

For the fortunate few who have participated in dramatics, every film, whether a tragedy, comedy, melodrama, or farce, becomes an emphatic response deeper and greater for them than for students of other curriculums.

To the academic artist, information concerning professional players and technical developments in the industry is of added interest. He reads many of the newest books on the subject, reviews articles in current magazines, and scans drama sections of the daily newspapers, always alive to a history-in-the-making of his newly discovered activity. His conversation is punctuated now with illustrations of happenings in Hollywood and colored by direct quotations. He takes pride in his feeling of relationship with the leading field of entertainment and the one most popular with his classmates. Truly, participation in high-school dramatics not only serves as basic training for a better understanding and appreciation of motion pictures but it also enriches a student's personality.

#### IV. SELECTION OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL PLAY by

ERNEST BAVELY, *Secretary of the National Thespian Society*

##### PURPOSE

**T**HE high-school play is a part of the educational process. Its primary function is to further the growth of the high-school pupil, educationally, socially, and culturally. Its value as entertainment should be given careful consideration, but its broad educational and cultural values should largely determine its suitability at the high-school level.

##### STANDARDS

1. The high-school play should have a worth-while theme, be sincere and true in its interpretation of life, and accurate in its reflection of customs and manners.

2. It should have literary value. That is, it should be written in acceptable language in accordance with accepted standards of playwriting. As such it should be emotionally and intellectually stimulating.

3. It should be within the capacities of the high-school student to understand, interpret, and appreciate, taking into consideration the influence of vicarious experience and the student's natural interests.

4. It should challenge the highest creative and artistic abilities of all who are associated with its production, providing rich opportunities for study, analysis, and experimentation.

5. It should be good theatre material, affording opportunities for sincere acting. It should provide satisfying entertainment. It should lead, rather than follow, community standards of entertainment and appreciation.

6. It should be free of highly sophisticated or advanced roles; free of vulgarity, profanity, objectional subject matter, sordid and unwholesome presentation of characters and scenes.

7. It should be adaptable to the physical equipment of the school in which it will be produced.

8. It should not make unreasonable demands upon the production budget. On the other hand, it should take its proportionate share of the budget, giving the school the highest type of play which it can afford.

9. It should fit in well with the plays which have preceded it and those which will follow it, giving variety to the year's production schedule.

10. It should afford opportunities for participation to many students.

11. It should come within the interests and qualifications of the person upon whom is placed the responsibility for producing it<sup>1</sup>.

#### V. PRODUCTION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL PLAY by

MARION STUART, *Director of Dramatics, Champaign, Illinois, Senior High School*

**W**HAT is it that happens during that magical period of production when the printed text of the play is transformed into the living drama of the theatre? What techniques will a director develop or follow which will prevent succeeding productions from having the same rubber stamp? What is the rehearsal period?

The rehearsal period is the entire period of time which is spent in the study and production of a particular play. It begins with the reading of the play, the study of the plot, an analysis of the characters which are instrumental in the development of the story, the climaxes, both major and minor ones, the mood of the play, the setting and the imaginative appeal of the story. Production difficulties, casting material available, and stage limitations are also discussed during the early readings of the play.

<sup>1</sup>For a discussion of data upon which these standards are formulated see Ernest Bavely, "Play Standards at the High School Level," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. XXVI No. 1, 1940, Pp. 89-96. These standards were unanimously adopted in 1938 by the Secondary School Committee of the American Educational Theatre Association.

As an outgrowth of this study, the director makes a decision concerning the choice of the particular play. This play is then submitted, in our school, to the Dramatic Board. Sometimes the board acts as a group, with everyone reading the play and voting upon it. Other times the vice-principal of the high-school, a member of the administration, and a member of the Dramatic Board alone read the play and approve the director's choice. If there should be community disapproval of the play, more than one person is responsible for its choice.

#### TRYOUTS

Upon completion of the prompt book there are the tryouts for the cast positions in the play. Approximately five days are needed for this. The first day, the tryouts are general, open to everyone who is a student of the high school and who desires to work on the play. The general tryouts are private, in the school auditorium, before the faculty members of the Dramatic Board. One week prior to the general tryouts an announcement is made in the home rooms, asking the students interested to come into the dramatic room and sign up for an interview for their particular tryout. At this time they are given instructions and permission to read the play which is placed on reserve in the school library. The students read the play and select one of the characters for their tryout. They make a copy of the required one-minute speech for that particular character and either memorize it or not, according to their own choice. A brief pantomime showing this character in action is also prepared for the general tryout.

The students are told that in a tied decision for cast roles the student who has memorized his tryout material is given the advantage. The reason for doing this is entirely personal, for the writer has found almost without exception, that the students willing to spend their time in independent study in preparation for the tryout, are the ones who want to be in the cast so much that they will continue working throughout the entire production period. The students, too busy to prepare properly for the tryout, are the ones taxed with innumerable after-school tasks which soon serve as excuses for absences from the rehearsal.

On the second and third days everyone meets in the auditorium, continuing the tryouts with group readings. Students are notified for their appearances on the fourth day which is devoted to scene readings and group pantomimes. On the fifth and last days of tryouts the cast is selected and rehearsal contracts are signed.

#### CONTRACTS USED

Cast contracts are mimeographed with blanks for the filling-in of the character's name, the student's name playing the role, the title of the play, the date of production, the student's home-room and class schedule. This contract also contains the production agreement whereby the student promises to be on time for all rehearsals, promises to be present at all rehearsals for his character

unless he is excused in advance by the director, promises to maintain or improve his scholastic standing, and promises to promote to the best of his ability this dramatic production. Then there is space for the student's signature, the director's signature, and the counter-signature of the student's parents. These contracts are filed by the secretary of the Dramatic Board and are returned to the student on the afternoon of the final rehearsal of the play.

#### REHEARSAL

The entire cast and staff are called together for the first rehearsal of the play which is the play reading. Actual reading techniques vary with the groups. Sometimes the cast reads the play, sometimes the entire group reads the play, sometimes the play is read to the group. But the story is rediscovered, the plot discussed and the division of work into the play scenes is assigned. Then the entire group makes a copy of the rehearsal schedule either in their cast book or in their production tablet.

Normally from four to eight weeks are spent on the production of the play. Rehearsals are held four of the five afternoons of the week from 3:15 to 5 or 5:30 o'clock. A school regulation prohibits night rehearsals except in cases of emergency. Such rehearsals are requested by the director or the principal and approved by the superintendent. Dismissal in the afternoon just before the dinner hour encourages students to leave the school immediately and to hurry home. Of course, afternoon rehearsals do eliminate the boys interested in athletics. However, the problem has been solved by the boys dividing their seasons. In the fall, if they are interested in football, they play football and serve on the business staff of the fall production; or, they appear in the fall play and report for basketball. Both departments work together for a broader development of the boys.

Individual rehearsal periods are devoted to planning the action, working with individual characters, breaking the play into scenes, putting it together again. The play is memorized during the second week of the rehearsal period, study of characterization is a continuous process during the entire rehearsal period. Then there are rehearsals for *tempo*, atmosphere, polish, and the mechanics of handling the properties, scenery, costumes, lighting, makeup, curtains, and the final performance rehearsal two days before the performance. The entire last week of production is devoted to a series of dress rehearsals. The first dress rehearsal is one concentrating on the stage and hand properties. Those to be used in the actual performance are distributed, stored, and taken care of by the property staff under the direction of their student chairman. The property staff must report the last week of the rehearsal period.

In the second dress rehearsal the properties are used again, but this rehearsal is one for scenery. Extra rehearsals are held on the scene shifts, but they become a part of the production during this second rehearsal. Windows are draped for this rehearsal and all backing for doors and windows is set for this second dress rehearsal. For the third dress rehearsal costumes and lights



are added. Costume changes are made within the prescribed playing time. This means that an *impromptu* dressing room has to be set back stage if there are sudden changes. If a student in the cast is uncomfortable with his costume or finds that he has any perplexities concerning his costume, he writes them down and gives them to the director at the end of the rehearsal. They are then taken up with the costume chairman and corrected before the next rehearsal. The fourth rehearsal is devoted to applying make-up, testing it with the scenery, properties, costumes, and lights.

Pictures are taken during this rehearsal for the yearbook. This is not a complete rehearsal of the entire play but one of practice in operating the house lights, starting the show, closing the acts and opening the next, calling the cast, and taking positions for curtain calls. If there is a difficult scene needing extra work, then that scene is taken in its entirety. The fifth and last dress rehearsal is the complete pre-performance rehearsal with all the departments functioning, including the house department of ushers, ticket sellers, ticket takers, publicity staff, musicians, and five or six invited guests.

After this complete rehearsal which is always two days before the show the cast meets the next afternoon in the auditorium on the stage. Each finds a comfortable position where he won't disturb others or be disturbed himself and questions concerning the play are asked and answered. The cast repeats the lines of the play, uninterrupted, thinking of cueing each other into the scene. There is no talking except the character speaking. When the lines have been finished, the director tells them a story of some famous actor or actress or teacher of drama. This story is brief and in keeping with the mood of the particular play. Final directions are given concerning the times for cast assembly. The cast is dismissed and everything is over for the director. Tomorrow brings the much anticipated day and the cast and staff take command. The day and the play is theirs. The audience assembles, the music fades, the house lights dim, the stage lights grow bright, the curtain opens, and the living drama unfolds.

Just what is the production of a play? It is finding the story of the play and telling it to the best advantage by the cast, staff, and director.

#### VI. THE ORGANIZATION OF A WELL-ROUNDED DRAMA PROGRAM<sup>1</sup> by

H. DARKES ALBRIGHT of the *Cornell University Theatre*

**T**HE difficulties in most American high schools at this point in their dramatic developments are practical, rather than theoretical. At the risk of ining what is perhaps too simple a generalization, one might describe the outstanding characteristic of typical high-school dramatic programs as a *serious*

<sup>1</sup>This adaptation of Mr. Albright's article is reprinted by permission from the March, 1943, issue of the *Virginia Journal of Education*, pages 256-8. The author's recommendations are based upon his report, *A Survey of School and Community Drama in Virginia, 1942*, a result of his seven months of study and travel in Virginia, under the auspices of the Extension Division of the University of Virginia and the Humanities Division of the Rockefeller Foundation.

*lack of organized planning.* The comparatively new and uncertain status of the speech arts in secondary schools is doubtless a contributing factor in the situation, as is the limited professional background of many of the instructors involved. From another point of view, the situation can be ascribed to local traditions with respect to "home-talent plays" in general and senior plays in particular, or to other forms of economic or social pressure more or less unrelated to modern educational programs in modern educational systems. Whatever the cause, however, this much is certain: educational policy and procedure in the matter of dramatic activities in many high schools seems confused, disorganized, and indeterminate.

#### THREE PRINCIPLES

In adjusting or re-directing present trends and conditions, three broad principles are recognized as fundamental to the effective and efficient organization of a drama program in the secondary school: (1) co-ordination and continuity; (2) opportunity for participation on the part not only of the comparatively few talented and specially interested students but also on the part of the many average students who have some interest but no particular talent in dramatic art; and (3) relative independence, in financial and other respects, from unrelated programs in the school.

With regard to the first of these, one need hardly remind most school people of the hit-or-miss nature of the dramatics program in hundreds of schools. Actors are trained, formally or informally, in drama class or club, while in many cases only seniors or juniors (trained or not) are eligible for the major castings of the year. Production workers are similarly prepared, while vague production committees are drafted for both assembly and public presentations. Good plays are read, studied, and discussed, but too often "any" play may be considered for production. In the same way, production schedules, like other aspects of the total program, are rarely planned ahead; castings and crews vary widely from year to year; and only in isolated cases do students find opportunities for continuous development in training and experience. Some of these difficulties are plainly unavoidable, especially in smaller systems, but most of them, unfortunately, seem scarcely to be recognized. The trouble seems to lie not so much in the weakness or unsoundness of local plans for co-ordination or continuity, as in the distressing fact that many of the schools apparently *have no plan*.

#### TWO ASPECTS CONSIDERED

The second principle here suggested emphasizes the necessary distinction between two aspects of any drama program in the school: between that portion which is centered on the average student, and that which is centered on the specially interested or gifted student. In the first case, the activity is concerned in a general way with the mental, emotional, and physical development of the average student, without immediate regard to perfection of performance or to effect on an audience; the values stressed are primarily personal, social, rec-

reational, and educational in the broadest sense, and are centered almost wholly in the individual participant. In the second case (which is definitely related to, and possibly built on, the first), the activity is concerned also with the development of the participating student's literary and artistic sensibilities and appreciations as well as with his bodily and emotional flexibility. By working specifically for a smoothly artistic and well-rounded performance, certain narrower but no less important educational values *for both audience and participant are emphasized.*

Although these two aspects of a total program are mutually dependent in some respects, in others they must doubtless be clearly separated, both in theory and in practice. No single project or production can (or should attempt to) be all things to all people. The more generalized activity can usually stimulate interest in and otherwise build a foundation for its more specialized counterpart; the latter type of activity can supply motivations and criteria at which students in the former might aim. General objectives can be similar though not identical in both cases. Specific objectives, standards, and procedures must vary, if the outcomes in either case are to be depended upon. The point to be stressed, however, is this: *both* of these aspects of the whole should be accounted for.

#### DRAMA FOR ITS OWN SAKE

Finally, an effective drama program is independent, particularly with respect to financial considerations, of unrelated factors and programs. This, means simply that an educational program in drama ought to exist for its own sake, stand on its own feet, and strive for its own values, without necessarily and regularly adapting itself to the needs of the senior class, the athletic association, or the general school fund. It *can* adapt itself, of course, in these and other ways; but it is then no longer a "dramatic program," and it is very doubtful a *dramatic* activity. If drama work in the school is to achieve its own aims (broadly educational, fine art, social, recreational, or cultural), it must have freedom to make its own decisions, develop its own plans, establish its own standards, and spend some of its own income for its own development. On any other terms, its functions and its values as an educational activity are usually so warped and restricted as to be unrecognizable.

#### NEED FOR TRAINING

Perhaps it should be emphasized, as a corollary to these principles, that the student's dramatic experience is only in a limited sense and to a limited degree dramatic *training*, unless that experience is carefully supervised at every point and unless continuous opportunities are available for progressive development at various levels of achievement. The pressure of an ambitious senior play, of a strongly competitive contest or tournament, or of similar special events may, for most students result in poor standards of expression and in undesirable educational outcomes, as compared with progressive classroom activity co-ordinated with more modest public performances. In any case,

mere activity without proper supervision must not be confused with intelligently directed training. It is axiomatic that we learn to do by doing; but competent teachers of speech and drama have long since recognized that doing is not the whole of learning. As James M. O'Neill pointed out almost a score of years ago, in *A Course of Study in Speech Training and Public Speaking for Secondary Schools*:

Practice, mere practice, practice unaccompanied by the other elements of a complete learning system, does not constitute an adequate program in speech education. "Practice makes perfect" is a dangerous half-truth. Practice makes permanent is a truer statement . . . To get the most out of doing as an aspect of learning to make experience teach what we want it to teach, to enable practice to make its full contribution toward perfection, we must put practice into its proper place and make it play its part in a team of four elements. These four elements together can adequately perform the task of speech training. Leave out any one of the four and the process loses much, if not all, of its educational possibilities. The four steps are: motivation, knowledge, practice, criticism.



**Students at work backstage in a play.** (Photo by courtesy of Prof. Karl Robinson, Department of Speech Education, School of Speech, Northwestern University.)\*

The primary need in many schools, at the present stage of development, seems to be provision for wider and more continuous fundamental training at all levels, with opportunities for appropriate public presentation at the various levels attained. Where the program has been properly organized and the students properly prepared, performances need not necessarily be limited to local audiences. The honest and genuine competitive spirit encouraged by exchanging and sharing drama programs with neighboring schools in the same general class may be looked upon as a useful and desirable motivation to achievement. In this category would be the simple exchange of special programs from school to school, as well as district or county tournaments carefully supervised and administered. In some instances such tournaments could take the form of a so-called round robin, to which schools A, B, and C contribute one short play toward a well-balanced program, and in which this program is then repeated on successive weeks at each of the schools; in other cases a district drama festival or Play Day could be held yearly, with member-groups alternating as hosts. Valuable student contacts are thus set up, ideas and techniques are observed and exchanged, and tastes and outlooks are broadened.

#### CURRICULUM OR CO-CURRICULUM?

Whether the type of training and activity here outlined should be offered through curriculum or co-curriculum means does not strike the writer as intrinsically important, provided that the work is carefully organized and effectively co-ordinated. An actual course in dramatics has a certain academic respectability that is a distinct asset, and it usually affords a discipline and a continuity that are sometimes harder to attain in a co-curriculum situation. For administrative or other reasons, however, a well-organized drama club or informal "class" (meeting regularly after school or in an activities period) may have to be substituted, particularly in the smaller schools. This arrangement need not be inferior to the other. Whether or not this latter procedure is effective depends in a large measure on the recognition given to the work by the principal, the teaching staff, and the school board; and on the proper redistribution of other demands on the teacher's time and energy.

The club or class is best administered under more or less rigid standards for full membership, but with younger members progressively developing skills and critical attitudes, and gradually assuming more and more responsibilities. A premium is placed on continuity of purpose and development, and on co-ordination of effort. Records of trials and achievements are carefully kept, and "credits" are honestly given for all phases of production. Where an actual course is offered along with the club (or informal class), the two may be considered as complementary. Club members may or may not take the course when it is offered; but hard work, co-operative effort, and occasional informal instruction in club projects can develop able and experienced workers even in two years' time, and in some cases such students are more responsible

than others who have satisfied course requirements. When the club workers do take the course, however, they tend to be leaders and to set the pace for the class. In special instances, where conditions seem to warrant such a procedure, club membership and activity can be made requirements for admission to the curriculum work; and in others the course might be made prerequisite to full membership in the club.

#### ADAPTATION TO LOCAL NEEDS

In this as in other similar matters, specific arrangements will depend on the local situation; and the wider the special training of the individual teacher, the easier it will be for him in most respects to adapt his general knowledge and skills to the special needs of his school and his community. It is assumed here that the soundest and broadest training for teachers does not consist of tailor-made sets of techniques for play production and selection or of rigid formulae for leadership and organization. The well-trained teacher will find it possible to develop a truly local program, suited to and based upon the nature of his students, his audiences, and his community. In any case, as has been suggested elsewhere, the nature and the quality of local programs are likely to change or develop only as *teachers* who plan and direct them change or develop; and at the present time these teachers as a group, simply lack the professional background and training in dramatics to plan adequate programs out of their own experience and on their own initiative. Apart from considerations of available time, the average drama director is, under present conditions, so concerned with developing simple skills and attitudes which are second nature to the trained director that he finds it impossible to think in terms of organizing his program, planning his teaching techniques, or adapting his work to fit local needs and interests<sup>2</sup>.

<sup>2</sup>Mr. Albright's article may be read in full in the report, *Teaching Dramatic Arts in the Secondary Schools*, soon to be published by the American Educational Theatre Association.

## CHAPTER IX

### Radio and Speech Education

EDWARD HELMAN

*Co-ordinator, Senior High School Broadcasting, Cleveland Public Schools*

I. KEITH TYLER

*Director, Office of Radio Education, The Ohio State University*

**A** NEW teaching aid is revitalizing work in the speech classroom. Radio broadcasting equipment brings a sense of immediacy and practicality of purpose to the teaching situation; it focuses attention on the idea to be communicated, highlights the necessity for attentive listening as well as for clear and forceful speaking, and provides a natural liaison between classwork and community interests and needs.

Indeed, had teachers prayed for a device to motivate and improve instruction in speech, no answer could have been more satisfactory than modern broadcasting equipment. That this is not yet universally appreciated in schools is the result of many factors, not the least being the way in which commercial radio has camouflaged the essential simplicity and usefulness of the microphone and loudspeaker as teaching aids.

Superb equipment meshed into global circuits makes broadcasting seem technically complicated and expensive, which most commercial radio broadcasting is. Programs presented by highly paid, highly publicized performers and writers make broadcasting seem elaborately professional, which commercial radio broadcasting often is. Innumerable programs designed for general entertainment or half-an-ear attention make broadcasting seem a time and thought killer, which commercial radio broadcasting is, more often than not. The ubiquity of the "sponsor's message," singing, insinuating, or bludgeoning its way into a nation's consciousness makes broadcasting seem merely a common carrier for advertising, which is what commercial radio broadcasting essentially is.

No wonder that many teachers and school administrators dismiss incredulously those who claim that a sound-system serving a single school or a radio station serving the educational needs of an entire community has now become a necessity.

Part of this incredulity comes from disparity in age between teacher and pupil. The majority of those engaged in secondary-school education lived their formative years in a world in which radio was a scientific marvel of doubtful permanence; consequently, the part which radio has assumed in the general education of younger persons is often underestimated, only all the more so because of the tendency to decry the cultural level of many programs heard on the air.



We know, however, that an increasing amount of our information about current affairs, an increasing amount of cultural enrichment, and a not inconsiderable amount of good entertainment come to us by radio. We also know that almost everyone has a genuine interest in the techniques of radio presentation and, to a varying degree, in the persons who are heard over the radio. With these points in mind, it should not be difficult to estimate the much deeper interest of young people who have heard radio-transmitted voices and music almost from birth and who, statistically speaking, now spend more time in listening to the radio than in any other *voluntary* occupation.

To take this natural interest and direct it toward profitable experience is not simply a responsibility of our time, it is one of the great opportunities which have come to schools. This opportunity is all the more to be welcomed because there are few instructional devices which can be more easily assimilated by the school. The sound motion picture, for instance, is more effective than sound broadcasting in certain teaching situations and equally effective in others; yet, even in the areas of its superiority, the motion picture lacks two properties of great value to teachers and administrators, two properties which are possessed by the audio-aid; namely, accessibility and adaptability.

A record-player for broadcasting a transcribed program is more easily transported and operated than a motion picture projector, and cheaper as well. So is a portable radio. By means of a central sound system with its loud-speakers installed in every room of the school, a group of any size or interest may be reached at will. Every class, or a selected group of five social classes, may listen to an opening session of the Congress without stirring from classrooms. Members of one speech class may present a program for their own interest, or, by a flip of switches, they may be heard by every English class meeting at the same time.

But the accessibility and flexibility of broadcasting are no greater than its adaptability. A motion picture is rarely made in a school, by a school, for the educational needs of the same school. Technical costs and difficulties are too great. Yet a live transcribed broadcast may be developed and produced within a school to fit a recognized need and may be heard at the time when it will be most effective as a teaching tool.

Two recently published books<sup>1</sup> record a wealth of practical knowledge of the instructional and administrative uses of intra-school sound systems and of the ways in which educational organizations may serve their communities by radio broadcasting. This chapter, consequently, will be confined to the ways in which broadcasting improves the *teaching of speech*. It will attempt to show that, as a teaching aid, the radio or audio-broadcast:

<sup>1</sup>Woelfel, Norman, and Tyler, I. Keith. *Radio and the School: a Guidebook for Teachers and Administrators*. New York: World Book Co. 1945.

Levenson, W. B. *Teaching through Radio*. New York: Farrar and Rinehart. 1945.

1. Directs pupils' natural interest in radio into purposeful activity and useful experience.
2. Calls attention to the primacy of ideas.
3. Focuses attention on the voice as an instrument of communication.
4. Creates a consciousness of speech style.
5. Provides a constant means of evaluating speech achievement.
6. Develops training in listening.
7. Provides an opportunity for those pupils who could be reached in no other way to develop poise and assurance through speech training.
8. Provides an opportunity for the development of other valuable social qualities not usually stimulated by speech work.

#### BROADCASTING DIRECTS NATURAL INTEREST INTO PURPOSEFUL ACTIVITY

The fact that young people are already interested in radio as a medium of communication and the fact that this medium is easy to use and is adaptable to school needs are of special significance to the teacher of speech. These properties make it possible to provide pupils with the strongest motivation for speech improvement; namely, the prospect of immediate and practical use of what is learned.

Teachers have always hoped for this type of motivation, but in only a few subjects can it be truly established. Classes in journalism publish school newspapers or magazines; drama classes present plays before paying audiences; athletic teams appear in public competition; and music groups give concerts. Remove these particular incentives for learning, and the pupils involved would lapse into that apathy which makes some classes so humdrum and inefficient. It is probably true, for example, that much of the rapid educational progress claimed for classes conducted by the Armed Forces is simply due to the presence of a strong motivation for learning.

Of course, it is apparent that the incentive which springs from the prospect of early use of that which is being learned can be established to some extent with any group of pupils concentrating on speech improvement. The adolescent with a speech defect has a practical social incentive for learning proper speech mechanics. Pupils will develop good speeches if they are sent to home rooms to persuade their listeners to take part in some actual school activity. Pupils will work hard to deserve an assembly assignment. Broadcasting, however, makes it possible to establish many more such real situations.

What sort of equipment should the school provide in order to assure this extension of speech opportunities? Good broadcasting equipment for speech training will be the same as that used for actual broadcasting. Young people cannot be long interested by "let's pretend" situations in which the microphone is simulated and the audience hears without electro-transmission. Of course, mock-ups may be the only means of preparing for an actual radio broadcast and, in such circumstances, the pupils' interest and improvement will continue; but whenever a teaching situation begins to lack reality, effective motivation and learning begin to decrease. In order, therefore, to take ad-

vantage of the superb tool which broadcasting furnishes, teachers of speech should be provided with adequate equipment.

There are three equipment levels. The first is the relatively unsatisfactory portable public address equipment. The second is public address equipment permanently installed in the classroom. The third is a central sound system by which broadcasters may reach some or all rooms in a building.

Portable public address equipment is valuable on numerous special occasions in any school; but when teachers plan to use such equipment frequently or when special occasions develop into general use, the portable nature of the equipment is a drawback. The necessity of arranging for its setting up, the frequency of minor breakdowns resulting from careless or ignorant handling, the poor practical results of broadcasting inside a general classroom or from an outer hall into a classroom, all these result in decreased use of the equipment for actual speech instruction. This decrease may seem to the administrator to indicate a lack of effectiveness in broadcasting itself. Actually it indicates unsatisfactory performance of the *type* of equipment being used.

The second level of equipment requires the allocation of a special room in which the equipment may be permanently housed. This is as logical as the allocation of a laboratory room for chemistry or a sewing room for home economics. Either subject could be taught to a degree in a general classroom; neither could be taught effectively without special equipment and housing arrangements.

The speech laboratory is simple. An ordinary classroom may be transformed into broadcasting studio, control room, and listening room. If the room is walled into three sections of varying sizes, is sound-treated, and is provided with ample double-window space, it will not only serve for speech instruction but may even be turned later into headquarters for a central sound system. This second level is, however, simply portable public address equipment (microphone, amplifier and control box, and loudspeaker) settled into a permanent location. The loudspeaker is installed in the largest of the three room-sections. The microphone is placed in the second largest section, which has been well soundproofed and so serves as a studio. Into the smallest section goes the amplifying and control box. Windows in the subdividing walls make it possible for occupants of any one section to see into the other sections. The technical equipment is now stable and safe, broadcasting conditions are representative of a real situation, and the audio-aid may be used to advantage.

The third level of equipment differs from the second only in the extent to which the whole school may share in the advantages of the medium of communication involved. A central sound system provides intra-school broadcasting by means of loudspeakers installed in several or all the rooms of the building. By means of a centrally located control board, any or all rooms on the sound-circuit may be connected with the source of sound, the microphone, a record turntable, or a radio. Microphone outlets may be provided not only

in the permanent studio but in any other part of the building where broadcasts might conveniently originate, such as the principal's office, the auditorium stage, or the music room. However, let the school principal be certain to veto any recommendation which would make his office or an annex to his office either the control room or the studio for the sound system. If he does not, he will be opening his tent to the camel<sup>2</sup>.

Once provided, then, with equipment of the second or third level, the speech teacher may proceed to plan his teaching schedule to include as many real broadcasts as possible. If the equipment is of the third level, much of the speech training may be done on material which the learner actually intends to present to a school-wide audience. This will include school bulletins and other types of informative broadcasts, dramatizations and sales talks to promote school and community campaigns, and talks and discussions of ideas and attitudes closely allied to the interests of the entire student body. Learning by doing is raised to the satisfactory pitch of learning by doing something which the individual wants to do, for the best interests of the whole community.

Equipment of either the second or third levels can be used to prepare for broadcasts over local radio stations. Even an annual program will provide a goal for months of intensive and enthusiastic work by both speakers and writers, just as the semi-yearly or annual concert does for musical organizations. With good preliminary training over broadcasting equipment, the speech groups may find more and more time available to them on the public service schedules of local radio stations; for the reluctance of radio program directors to provide time for school broadcasting is more the result of the school's ignorance of basic radio techniques and of poorly trained pupils than of any other factor.

Whatever the level of the broadcasting equipment, only those teachers who have used it can appreciate fully how much enthusiasm it arouses and how quickly pupils learn under the stimulus of an approaching broadcast.

#### BROADCASTING HELPS EMPHASIZE THE PRIMACY OF IDEAS

In addition to providing a purposeful direction for pupils' natural interest in radio, the use of broadcasting equipment in speech classes helps to establish the primacy of ideas in communication, a fact sometimes inadvertently slighted, especially when speech assignments do not effect some immediate, practical purpose. Exercises to perfect isolated factors in speech or speech-making, for instance, may give some pupils the idea that manner is more important than matter. The presence of a microphone and the possibility of a listening audience assist materially in restoring the balance between speech content and speech presentation. Only when speech work is directed by the necessity of

<sup>2</sup>*High School Radio Workshops in Cleveland*, a pamphlet published by the Federal Radio Education Committee and the United States Office of Education (1944), presents a survey made by the Cleveland Public Schools of the equipment, studio plans, and operational details of twelve senior high-school central sound systems. The duties and time-allotment of teachers who manage the broadcasting are also described.

saying well something worth saying is the balance actually restored; then techniques become important because they aid in projecting better an idea which the pupil wants to present.

Not that broadcasting will convert the pupil miraculously to the primacy of the idea; as a matter of plain fact, the techniques of commercial radio are often more interesting and laudable than its purposes and achievements. The speech teacher will have to help the pupil recognize this. He will need to lead him into an examination of the social obligation imposed by such a mass communication device as radio and to a re-examination of the obligation imposed upon all public speakers.

This means that the teacher of speech will set aside time for the discussion of radio programs, the purpose of which will not be simply to "appreciate" or to "criticize" but to bring out the broadcaster's responsibility for saying something worth hearing. Under this standard, a comedian is as much to be commended as a commentator, and the radio play may be examined as profitably as a government documentary.

Such a standard must be applied in turn to the uses which the class makes of the broadcasting equipment at its own disposal. If this equipment reaches large numbers of pupils, the broadcaster's obligation to his unseen audience is all the easier to emphasize, in minor as well as in major broadcasts.

Should the Student Athletic Association, for example, want to increase its sale of tickets to a game, the problem of what is to be said and how it is to be presented becomes an important one not only to the broadcasters but also to the association, the team, and the school treasury. The problem, moreover, is not simply the development of a school commercial; it is also a problem in practical ethics: what can be honestly said about the attractions of the game to be advertised? What motives for buying tickets can be appealed to with integrity? What form will most effectively project the information and ideas involved?

This type of problem does not seem academic to pupils. No one is more unsympathetic to the broadcast which over-ballyhoos or over-emotionalizes than the average adolescent; nor does he respond to the trite or the stilted! And so the pupil broadcasters turn with real interest, even on a minor broadcast, to a consideration of the integrity of the basic idea and the manner of its presentation.

In addition, as the class comes to understand the value and usefulness of the school-wide broadcast, pupils and teacher begin to give the medium the respect it deserves. They see it as a means of uniting the school, as a means by which the school may take a more active part in the affairs of the community at large and by which the community may be brought into the school. This point of view blows away any stuffiness and artificiality which may still linger in the speech classroom.

South High School, Columbus, Ohio, provides an interesting example of one way in which school and community are brought closer by broadcasting equipment. Each day, like all high schools, South welcomes returning service men and women. Some of them have witnessed great events or have experienced the excitement (and the boredom and suffering) of being part of history. Many of these veterans visit or are brought to the radio and speech classroom. Under the guidance of the teacher, Miss Marguerite Fleming, pupils have set up a system for interviewing the guests and transcribing the extemporaneous program which results. Sometimes a recorded interview is broadcast to the entire school over the sound system, but all are filed as part of an important first-hand record of the experiences of South High School graduates in this war. This library of living history will be invaluable later to classes in social studies, to community organizations, and to the individuals involved.

Speech activity of this type, made possible by the possession of broadcasting and recording equipment, is but one example of the new and vital attraction which broadcasting gives to ideas. A high-school pupil needs only be in the room during the development of an interview to understand that ideas are what make for interest. He listens to the various stages through which the interview passes: the drift of casual, preliminary conversation; the emergence of new and arresting facts, experiences, and attitudes; the informal development of these new ideas under the guidance of the interviewer; the re-examination of the whole topic in the light of these ideas; the selection of the final theme and the ideas by which it will be developed; the final interview as recorded. Each step indicates that ideas are of fundamental importance; only the final step involves the techniques of presentation.

Such experiences may be repeated every time a representative of the community at large makes a broadcast within a school. It is the duty of the teacher in charge to see that an outside individual or organization puts its best foot (its best idea) forward, and that his pupils get the opportunity to help both in evaluation and presentation.

It is equally the duty of the speech teacher to help evaluate what the school plans to broadcast over commercial radio stations. Too many public relations programs have no more vital purpose than "to sell the school to the community," a purpose which hardly seems worthwhile when measured against the form of communication involved. Radio should bring the greatest value to the greatest number; selling the school to the community by means of the usual "educational" broadcast may have some interest for school people or for those who are already interested in the schools but it is rarely of interest to the people whom the schools want to "sell." However, public service broadcasts by the school for *other* community organizations will interest a larger number of people and will help develop the idea which is of greatest value; namely, that schools are serving the needs of the *rest* of the community.



Supporters of the community organizations which the schools so serve become supporters of the schools, and the ability with which broadcast-wise teachers and young people do their jobs will increase interest in the school and admiration of its training.

To start with the primacy of the idea and end with school public service programs may seem discursive; yet there is nothing more important in the teaching of a speech class than to instill ideas of integrity, of interest, of factual truth. There is, equally, nothing more valuable to the reputation of a school than this type of emphasis. The use of broadcasting equipment helps develop this point of view by its constant reminder to the learner of the unseen audience, the community, in school and out, which will listen to him if he has something worth listening to.



Students of The University High School of The State University of Iowa broadcasting a radio script from Station WSUL



## BROADCASTING FOCUSES ATTENTION ON VOICE AND SPEECH MECHANICS

Few persons possess, or even desire, a beautiful speaking voice; and this in spite of the number of double-chocolate-sundae voices on the radio. A beautiful voice attracts attention to itself; most of us prefer a voice which does its business well but unobtrusively, a voice which is representative of our conception of our own personalities. We once had to rely on the opinions of others as to the quality of our own voices; we even drew conclusions based on the fallacy that we could really hear ourselves as others hear us. Not until the microphone and the recorder appeared in the schools was the pupil able to evaluate his own voice. That is why broadcasting and recording equipment become essentials in the speech class.

Until the average pupil hears his own voice faithfully recorded, he has little incentive for speech improvement and he certainly lacks altogether an understanding of his real voice needs. Moreover, few persons who have heard their own voices are satisfied with them, and lack of satisfaction is the first great motivation for improvement. Once the pupil is able to hear his own voice objectively, he will listen eagerly to his teacher's and companions' diagnoses. Work is prescribed, *e.g.*, exercises to improve quality, pitch, or control, assumes meaning and is done with an understanding of the goals to be reached. Subsequent recordings will help him evaluate his own progress.

As time advances, speech teachers will undoubtedly find more effective recording machines on the market than have ever before been available. Among them will be wire and tape recorders which will make temporary or permanent records of the voice at less time, expense, and effort than have heretofore been possible.

While the voice recorder is a basic item in the equipment of the speech teacher, the microphone and loudspeaker are no less important in voice improvement. Before he enrolls in class, today's pupil has been convinced of the desirability of making the most out of his voice. He is quite conscious of the fact that radio focuses attention on the voice and that no other personal attractions or complementary visual efforts will add to the effectiveness of his broadcast. He knows that his ideas must be conveyed by the voice alone, except for occasional use of sound effects or of music to heighten the effect of the voice. Listening to broadcasts has taught him this, as well as a knowledge of desirable voice qualities which an earlier generation achieved only at the end of a speech course.

Start a discussion of the radio voice the average pupil admires, proceed to an analysis of what that voice possesses, and you will find that, like you, he admires the balanced voice: one which is vigorous but not exhausting; clear but not impersonal; controlled but flexible; sincere but not solemn; capable of emotion but not emotional; forceful but intimate. From this paragon of vocal qualities, the pupil demands an equally balanced production of speech

sounds, reserving special condemnation for both the sloppy and the nicely precise.

As the speech teacher becomes aware of how much radio has already taught his pupils and as he sees how willing they are to improve their voice and speech production, he wisely turns to the use of the broadcast as a means of preserving the original motivation. In a short time, he discovers that more than motivation is involved. A class listening to its fellow-members over the loudspeaker becomes almost abnormally attentive to errors in enunciation, to meaningless inflection and emphasis, to voice variation from the norm. Pupils perceive that poor breathing becomes disturbing and even ridiculous as the microphone and loudspeaker transmit its amplified version. Indeed, for all their friendliness for the microphone, pupils begin to understand that it and its amplifying unit are their severest critic and that to maintain friendly relations they must improve.

Interest and improvement are stimulated by broadcasting equipment, but the teacher must look to solid foundations. He will teach the mechanics of effective voice and sound production; but he must also make it clear that desirable voice qualities are more than mechanical qualities; they spring from personality and character, from belief in and understanding of the idea which is to be presented.

Here again the radio comes to the teacher's aid. What offends in many radio advertisements is not the advertisement itself, but the patent insincerity of both the "message" and its speaker. The writer of advertising continuity struggles to impress the "average listener" with the virtues of a product about which the writer himself neither knows, cares, nor uses. Projected by a carefully enthusiastic, beautifully inflected, equally indifferent voice, the "message" falls, as it should, upon unresponsive minds. Once a high-school pupil perceives this, the lesson is obvious, as is that to be learned from the hollow oratory of the political spellbinder, now fast disappearing from the air (if not from legislative halls).

But there is another lesson in voice and speech techniques which the radio can teach. This is found in the broadcast presented by the sincere and able believer who somehow manages to drag an important idea through dust and monotony. Apparently virtue is not its own producer. Script-reading sees to that.

This raises an old problem with which the speech teacher is well able to deal. It is one which he prefers, as well, for it presents an excellent opportunity to teach the techniques of interpretative reading; and this brings into action all the mechanics of inflection, pace, emphasis, and word-color, which students of speech have studied since the golden years of the Greeks. It presents, too, a chance to teach the major lesson of script-reading or interpretation; namely, that mechanics avail little without a sympathetic understanding of the writer's ideas.

The problem involved in script-reading can be well illustrated on the opening day of class when the pupil records his voice. If he will record first a brief *ad lib* conversation with a fellow-pupil and then record a passage of sight-reading, he himself will be struck by the difference in vitality and in naturalness and will be intelligently motivated toward a solution of the problems of interpretation.

After a time, the speech teacher will find his enthusiasm for the use of broadcasting equipment modified by the trials of teaching script interpretation. He should then turn for respite to the extempore forms of radio speech: the round-table, the informal panel discussion, the quiz, the *ad lib* interview. When he eventually returns to the speech-profitable job of improving interpretation of script, he will do so with the knowledge that broadcasting can be used to motivate all phases of speech work. In fact, an additional phase is added which is rarely included in other speech classes; that of dramatization. Broadcast dramatization, dramatization for the ear only, widens both the scope and the appeal of the speech class and opens new and profitable sources of practice material. It is important that the speech teacher make use of radio dramatization, for speech work is so valuable to the adolescent that every legitimate attraction which it can offer is desirable.

#### BROADCASTING CREATES A CONSCIOUSNESS OF SPEECH STYLE

Radio's booby-trap is the script. The apparent ease of "just reading" into a microphone attracts the uninitiated. Yet, as has been observed in the preceding section, faults in interpretative reading prove unexpectedly damaging to final impressions. There is also a difficulty beyond that of presentation. It is, of course, the style in which radio script must be written. The broadcast must be *written in spoken English*, and the teacher who uses broadcasting equipment for all its manifest advantages must make up his mind to teach the techniques of this style.

Most of us write in a style which is quite distinct from that of our speech. Written English and spoken English differ in numerous and subtle ways, inadequately described by such words as "formal" or "colloquial." A peculiarity of this distinction in style is that written English is detected by even a casual listener as he hears it over the loudspeaker; yet he will be oblivious to the same style delivered by a platform speaker. This peculiarity is probably accounted for by the sense of intimacy which springs from broadcast reception. Under ordinary circumstances, radio broadcasts are heard in the home—in the living room, kitchen, or bedroom. Even under group reception conditions in the classroom, the radio speaker is as close to the ear as is the teacher. Few teachers ever deliver a written, memorized talk to a class of thirty-five; the intimacy of the situation calls for extempore presentation. Similarly, although the radio speaker is less familiar to a class than its teacher, the same style is expected, but only all the more so since commercial radio presentation has conditioned the pupils' preference.

Good radio speaking, then, is characterized by those qualities which an intimate situation demands: simplicity, directness, sincerity, a lively personal interest in the subject, an obvious desire to have the listener share that interest, and a sense of proportion (sometimes called a sense of humor). The best popular professional radio speakers, men like Clifton Fadiman, John Nesbitt, Lowell Thomas, or Milton Cross, achieve this manner sometimes in spite of script. For the novice or the amateur, the best preliminary assurance of successful speaking lies in a radio script which seeks in its style to achieve the *ad lib* or extempore manner.

This is a style difficult for the average writer to develop. No matter how wide his knowledge and practice of English style, the odds are against his having learned to write the English of extempore speech. Moreover, the entire area of writing is one which many teachers of speech tend to avoid and their pupils encourage this tendency; for they have enrolled in class to *talk*. And teaching speech techniques takes up so much time that writing must be unavoidably neglected. It should, indeed, have been taught before the pupil even enrolls in speech class! The result is that extemporaneous speaking and interpretative reading are emphasized and speech writing is neglected. Not until broadcasting becomes a teaching tool does the problem of writing become so urgent that it must be dealt with; for over the loudspeaker it becomes obvious that even the most skillful script reader must fail when his script smells of printer's ink. Fortunately, the average high-school pupil takes to the "new style" with interest. He has always been severely critical of broadcasts which sound "like reading" and he easily learns to test each written sentence by ear, *i.e.*, by reading it aloud. (His ears have heard more good speech in his time than his eyes have scanned good literature.) When a phrase or clause rings false in his ear, he will rewrite it; when the sentence is burdened with qualifying, subordinate ideas difficult to follow by ear, he will simplify.

This interest in shaping the written sentence to the way of the tongue and the custom of the ear is the result of the practical effect the pupil desires to accomplish. He wants his idea to be understood by every unseen listener and, accordingly, he seeks to avoid barriers to comprehension.

Sound without sight also makes possible new and imaginative forms of communication; new, at least, to the speech class. The best way to sell dance tickets, for instance, may be by means of dramatized dialogue. This would be a stiff and unnatural procedure on a speech platform, but it becomes life-like before a microphone and provides excellent practice in learning to write spoken English! Again, a narrative may be heightened in interest and effect by the use in the background of recorded sound or music. Every young radio listener can think of a dozen new ways to present an idea once he imagines sound to be the only source of contact with the listener.

But there are limitations to a medium which uses sound alone. The absence of sight reduces the length of time in which any speaker may hope to

hold his audience. The beginner, therefore, must not only learn to use conventional English; but he must learn to be concise. In order to make good use of the few minutes at his disposal, the pupil must be taught to limit himself to one idea and to make that idea perfectly clear. This requires abundant, interesting, and relevant detail. The problem of selecting this detail, of making it listenable, of planning it so that it will anchor the general idea in the minds of the audience provides a real workout for the pupil broadcaster.

#### RADIO PROVIDES A CONSTANT MEANS OF EVALUATING SPEECH ACHIEVEMENTS

The use of broadcasting equipment and of appropriate speech and production techniques makes it possible to reinforce classwork by the relevant study, appreciation, and criticism of current radio programs.

This has a social value which helps ally the speech class in one more way to the general life of the community; but this chapter is concerned with another practical aspect of such study. Current radio programs provide an outside-the-classroom standard of comparison to which the individual pupil may continually refer both for encouragement and correction. Indeed, the presence on the air of programs of all types and degrees of excellence provides a critical whetstone which no speech teacher can afford to neglect.

No other area of language work is provided with such a variety of convenient outside material. The teacher of dramatics may suggest that pupils see a motion picture which exhibits unusually good character acting; but he can hardly expect that a majority will see the picture by the next day (when the suggestion requires money as well as time). The speech teacher, however, may reasonably ask his class to report next day on the way in which newscasters pace talks, and he may expect that a majority will have an opportunity to listen and take notes before the class meets again.

The ability to turn to such outside-school standards, so conveniently provided, is salutary to both teaching standards and learning motivation. The best, if not the worst of public speaking may be heard over the radio; the air brings a kaleidoscope of broadcasts, an extraordinary parade of living examples of speech. During one week, a modern speech class may hear over the radio at home more samples of public speaking by men of professional training or experience than his father's generation could have heard in months. If examples have any value as teaching aids, today's speech teacher has a running start on his predecessors.

There is more. The transcription enables the teacher to capture the spoken word and use it for permanent reference. Such transcriptions may be processed commercial recordings of actual radio productions, they may be records made and sold by commercial record manufacturers, or they may be instantaneous recordings made by the school on its own recording equipment.<sup>3</sup> In this latter case, they may be recordings of programs taken from the air, or of

<sup>3</sup>M'ies, J. Robert. *Recordings for School Use; a Catalog of Appraisals*. New York: World Book Co. 1942.

in-school talks by special guests, or of those by pupils. Whatever they may be, these recordings are important, not only because they may be used for their subject content but also because of the speech techniques they display.

With a transcription library within the school and a continuous schedule of programs over commercial radio stations, the speech teacher is never at a loss for reference. Is the question under discussion one of voice quality? The class's own voice recordings provide the untrained examples; the records made by famous speakers and actors, the professional. Is the question one of writing? The air is filled with every variety of style, from the unnatural sales patter of the spot advertisement, the journalistic of a local newscaster, the pulpit oratory of a church broadcast, the *ad lib* looseness and energy of a good round-table, or the studied but clean and vigorous writing of the first-rate radio narrative. Is the question one of appropriate form? of integrity of idea? of clarity of development? of emotional effectiveness? The teacher may refer on records or on the daily radio schedule to the best professional examples by the world's most varied and expensive talent.

Of course, the use and discussion of these examples can be a prodigious waste of class time. Indeed, teachers and parents have been heard to declare that listening is a lost art. Actually it is a developing art; one which badly needs the guidance of the trained teacher, the teacher who realizes that many of the techniques of study now taught in connection with the use of textbooks need to be adapted to audio-learning.

No pupil, for instance, should ever be asked to listen to a broadcast, either in school or out, without being told for what he is to listen. Unless the program is a recorded one, there can be no reconsideration of actual words; this makes a specific and limited assignment essential. In addition, if the assignment deals with out-of-school listening, the pupil should be encouraged to make notes immediately after the broadcast; notes which will enable him to make a factual report on his assignment when he returns to class.

When a transcription is played in class, the teacher should be thoroughly familiar in advance with all the details of its script and presentation; and, unless the emotional impact of the transcribed program would be destroyed by prior discussion, some guidance to listening should be given in advance, so that the pupil may get the most from his first listening. This is the sort of lesson planning which every teacher follows when the assignment deals with the printed page; it is mentioned only because there is a tendency to believe that learning by sound-communication is less exacting than reading. In point of fact, however, the distinct qualities of broadcasting, especially its existence in a time-line rather than a space-line, demand even greater reading preparation than do those of the reading assignment. Yet the vividness and the intimacy of the listening assignment multiplies its effectiveness and makes the extra effort on the part of the teacher worth while.



## BROADCASTING DEVELOPS TRAINING IN LISTENING

Suppose a survey of your community showed that every boy and girl went to the movies, any movie, every night of the week, and that nothing short of a revolution in family life or the destruction of the film industry could alter the situation? One might safely predict that the schools would decide to institute, or would be forced by civic pressure to institute, courses which would teach an understanding of cinema techniques and which would aim toward discriminative appreciation. Civic organizations would probably work with the schools to improve film booking arrangements so that the movie-going pattern and interest of young people could gradually be elevated and changed.

A survey of your school will indicate now that the average pupil's daily individual or in-company listening to the radio equals attendance-time at a motion picture theater. It is not likely to be taken at one stretch, of course, nor will the pupil give the same concentration of attention to the average radio program as he does to a movie; but he does concentrate frequently enough to make his week's listening total impressive. That he listens largely for amusement and relaxation is a tribute to radio comedians and musicians; that he listens little to other types of programs which the radio industry also provides is a challenge to the schools.

For years, English teachers have tried to elevate reading tastes. The modern flood of comic magazines and picture magazines may be presented by some cynics as evidence that teaching efforts have been in vain. Actually, the greatly increased circulation of library books and the quantity and quality of books now being published and sold in this country indicate improved standards and a much larger reading public. Since radio communication has definitely come to stay, it is high time that all schools decide to give spoken English their educational support.

Helping to make radio listening discriminating and meaningful is all the more desirable because, after formal schooling is over, the citizen's most consistent source of information and his most frequent purveyor of attitudes will be the radio. An adolescent who has learned to understand the nature and history of the radio industry, who has himself practised some of the techniques of broadcasting, who has examined the basic problems of script and production and has learned to analyze ideas and their projection, who has learned, in other words, to *listen*, will be in a position to profit from radio as an adult. The newscasts, the political commentaries, the speech and special events broadcasts, and the forums and the round-tables, will bring him an understanding of the history of his time; he will enjoy the plays, the music, the documentary broadcasts which are part of the cultural advancement of his time. He will still listen to the dance bands, the mystery thrillers, and the comedy and variety programs of the years ahead; but such programs will cease to be his only reason for turning on the radio.



In order, then, that tomorrow's adult may make the best use of the continuing educational medium of radio, teachers both in and out of speech classes need to train today's adolescents in good listening habits. By so doing they will open new directions in popular education, just as surely as they are now in teaching young people how to read with discrimination.

Indeed, the school will be taking the best possible means of raising the general standards of radio programs the country over. Radio is responsive to public taste; once classes in radio appreciation and techniques begin to increase appreciably the number of discriminating listeners in the consumer's market, the industry will respond. Radio has consistently proved its ability to produce quality broadcasts; it can and does present first-rate programs; but until sponsors can be convinced that such programs attract a public, their production will remain a drain on the industry's purse, to be abandoned when budgets grow tight.

The school has a double responsibility, then; a responsibility for the improvement of listening standards so that program standards may be improved; and a responsibility for training better listeners so that they may reap the full benefits of what radio has to offer at its present level.

BROADCASTING PROVIDES AN OPPORTUNITY FOR PUPILS TO DEVELOP  
POISE AND ASSURANCE

Very few young people are afraid of the microphone; not nearly so many, at least, as are afraid to stand before a strange audience. The speech class that uses the broadcast as a teaching aid will consequently not only attract those pupils who want to learn about speech and radio but those who would hesitate to stand before an audience without the corporeal protection of a microphone stand. There is no special sense to it, but the feeling exists.

Not long ago, a high-school senior rose before an audience of several hundred adults and explained how much broadcasting had done to give her poise and ability to speak. Every word and action voiced for the truth of her testimony; and yet she had never before addressed a "live" audience of such size or under such conditions; all her experience had been in the radio speech class and in the broadcasting studio of the central sound system at her school. She had even hesitated to elect radio speech because of her timidity before class groups. The imaginative facing, through the microphone, of hundreds of unseen listeners had developed in her the same poise a less timid person would be expected to gain from direct audience experience.

There is another type of speech pupil whom broadcasting activity aids, the boy or girl who is so far from timidity that he seems overly sophisticated or exhibitionistic. Radio immediately appeals to him as a star vehicle. And yet, contrary to expectation, taking part in radio broadcasting does him good, because he can exhibit nothing but his voice! He soon discovers that his voice reveals his weakness, the inner lack of security which has caused him to over-

compensate. In the hands of a good teacher he is due for a psychological renovation.

#### BROADCASTING DEVELOPS OTHER VALUABLE SOCIAL QUALITIES

Poise, assurance, understanding of self are values which speech education has always offered; broadcasting simply attracts more pupils into the speech class and so extends its opportunities. But there are other values of great importance which are almost impossible to provide in a class which does not use broadcasting equipment.

Broadcasting, as distinguished from speaking into a microphone, requires co-operation; it is never an individual activity. Even a simple speech must be "produced," must be timed, and must be handled technically. Consider, then, the teamwork which must go on when a class actually produces a program radio broadcast. Everyone takes part in the planning, in the development of script, in the choice of casting, and in the evaluation of the final product. Every individual effort, no matter how small, is a noticeable contribution to the whole. Pupils accustomed to handling a single sound effect on one occasion or playing the major role on another, smooth performance, and the overall effect of the entire program, not the activity of the single individual, are the criteria of success.

In this respect, broadcasting takes its place beside the stage production, the school paper, the concert, and the team-game as an activity requiring self-effacing co-operation and the ability to subordinate self to the good of the production.

The preceding eight sections have attempted to survey briefly the values which broadcasting equipment and the use of radio bring to the teaching of speech in the classroom. From time to time, however, there has been an indication that broadcasting may expand beyond its subordinate use in the speech class and become a major instrument of communication for the entire school. When the broadcasting equipment is on the third level, *i.e.*, a central sound system with studio and control room, this is what usually happens.

Whenever this stage is reached, whether immediately or after an experimental period, no principal will want to be personally responsible for either the operating details or the day-by-day development of the broadcasting system. Teachers should be selected for these duties and urged to take special training in summer courses in radio production, script, utilization, and technical service. For, to all intents and purposes, the central sound system will become the school's radio station, even though its sound is transmitted by audio-frequencies.

The teacher in charge of technical equipment may need to use only a part of his teaching day for this service, especially if he organizes and trains crews of boys who are interested in radio and electronics to handle the sound system and recording equipment. But the teacher in charge of production and speech training will find all his time occupied in planning the most effective use of

the "station" as it relates to the administrative, instructional, and public service needs of the school.

The teacher responsible for these school-wide plans will also direct the presentation of school radio programs over local commercial and educational stations and will work with local organizations which need the school's radio aid. He will want to develop further the recognized abilities of the school's best pupil speakers, writers, and actors. Although he may be an English or speech teacher and the school administration may place his "radio workshop" under the supervision of that department, the teacher's services and those of his pupils belong to every department and activity in the school, and to community organizations as well.

The members of this special radio workshop group will probably be selected in the main from the pupils who have had preliminary training in broadcasting techniques in speech classes. The amount of time required and credit given for this advanced work in the art and craft of oral communication will depend upon the individual school; but it should be recognized that the teaching situation in the radio workshop is stronger and more effective than in the more formally organized class.

The purposes of the school radio workshop will then generally be as follows: *first*, to provide an organized and trained group to present information and attitudes which are most effectively communicated by radio techniques; and *second*, to direct young people's existing interest in radio into experiences of personal and social value.

A course of study in the workshop will never be rigidly adhered to, for it is a *workshop* at the call of every school service. Its purposes may be achieved by organizing the material of the course of study around the following five general aims:

1. to create an understanding of the primacy of ideas in broadcasting and the methods by which radio may convey ideas.
2. to train further in the special requirements imposed on writing, on speech, and on other types of production by the nature of radio transmission and reception.
3. to continue to help young people to establish standards in radio appreciation.
4. to give information about the organization and the practices of the broadcasting industry and about its vocational requirements.
5. to help plan broadcasts which will facilitate the school's administrative and instructional procedures, unify and strengthen the efforts of student organizations, and increase the co-operation between the school and community.

The organization of the special group in the radio workshop will not decrease the use of broadcasting equipment by classes which emphasize speech improvement, since such equipment still remains the best possible teaching aid. The demand for broadcasting facilities will simply be increased; and additional room and supplementary equipment may be needed.

## CHAPTER X

### Speech in the Extracurriculum Program

ARTHUR E. SECORD

*Brooklyn College*

RUTH H. THOMAS

*Passaic, New Jersey, Public Schools*

**W**HENEVER educators talk about extracurriculum activities of any kind, discussion all too frequently degenerates into the topic of eliminating competition from the educational field. The word "degenerates" is used advisedly because competition is so much a key part of our educational picture that the elimination of it would be both impractical and impossible.

When a question is asked and one student knows the answer while another does not, we have competition; and this involves rewards. The nod of the teacher's head is a reward for the student who knew and the student who did not know has been defeated.

In the field of speech today, many are asking for festivals or conferences in the place of contests. It is their belief that by this change competition will be removed and all of the alleged evils of contests will disappear. These people assume that competition is the seat of all evil and that by removing it Utopia will be achieved. Let us look at an example. One-act play festivals have replaced one-act play contests in many areas. The plays are presented and instead of choosing a winner, competent critics evaluate the work of all. The performances are catalogued as "good" or "bad," or as "excellent," "superior," "good," "average," or "inferior." Sometimes the performances are not even rated but comments, oral or written, are given to the individual actors. All of this is good but has competition been removed? The only possible answer is no! Two plays may receive the rating of "excellent." This is the same as declaring a tie for first place since each was competing against the standard. Eliminate the rating and there will still be the desire to show to advantage among the other performances. Competition is so fundamental as to be unavoidable. But it goes much deeper than this. How were the students who attended the festival selected? When two or more high-school students want one part in one play which is to be given once in one festival, "brotherly love" or "sweetness and light" will not solve the problem. It is a situation which can be solved only by competition. The director must either toss a coin (that form of competition in which the responsible authorities refuse to exercise judgment), or determine a winner by the application of professional standards and, by a contest, choose the student who wins the part and goes to the festival.

Emulation has been, and will continue to be, the drive behind all sound educational programs. Only under conditions of regimentation, usually mili-

tary in nature, have calisthenics successfully done the work of a well-integrated, competitive program of physical education.

In every branch of business, industry, government, and the professions we find competition maintaining standards, stepping up production, putting community drives "over the top," choosing leaders and making life better for all of us because of its existence. Removing competition from the schools of this country will only result in making those schools graduate their students less prepared to meet those problems which are inevitable. Three quotations from Roy Bedichek, manager of the Texas Interscholastic League, and defender of contests in *School Activities* magazine, should clarify this:

We know that competitions involve the emotions; and we know that there is no other way to teach emotional control and inculcate the habit of emotional control in competitive situations save and except in artificially set-up competitive situations. If there is another way we should like to hear of it. Emotions cannot be disciplined in situations in which the emotions are not engaged. Emotions must be aroused if we are to deal with them in any way whatever in our instructive capacity. . . .

Among practical pedagogues down the line from the Homeric Greeks to the modern schoolroom, from the first educational theorists to the last, in the writings of the greatest philosophers and psychologists, among the more successful practitioners as well as among the thinkers who really count for anything, the appeal to rivalry or emulation has been either accepted as a legitimate device or tolerated as a necessary evil. . . .

For better or for worse, we are western. Individuals here and there in our western world prefer the religion of escape to the strenuous life, the peace of resignation to joys of struggle; but we are discussing here a system of education in a land which is the frontier of western civilization, under a state which is the tool of probably the most highly competitive society the world has ever known.

#### HISTORY

The speech program was originally introduced to the schools of the United States at the extracurriculum level. Debating societies seem to have been the earliest activities in most colleges and universities. In the high schools, oratory and the delivery of oratorical declamations preceded debate in many areas. While no set pattern was followed in the several states, a resume of the history of speech contest work in Michigan should be of interest from a historical point of view. It is probably representative.

The Michigan High School Oratorical Association was organized in 1896 and was sponsored after 1914, by the State Department of Agriculture. It conducted contests in original oratory and oratorical declamation. In 1916, the Extension Service of the University of Michigan organized the Michigan High School Debating League. The contest picture was completed in 1926 with the organization of the Michigan High School Extempore Speaking League by Carroll Lahman of Western Michigan College of Kalamazoo. At this time the extracurriculum speech picture in the state was both complete and confused. Any high school, to participate in a full program of speech contests, had to join three separate organizations and work through a season

of conflicting schedules and promotional interests. Each organization was well-managed and sincere, but the confusion was fundamental.

In 1932 the Oratorical Association and the Extempore Speaking League were combined and the following year these two united with the Debate League to form the Michigan High School Forensic Association, the management of which was placed with the extension service of the state university. To permit a closer co-operation among interested groups of educators, a State Forensic Council was then established. This council consisted of two representatives from each of three organizations: the Michigan Association of Teachers of Speech, the Michigan Conference of City Superintendents, and the Michigan Secondary-School Association. During the past year, two representatives have been added from the forensic coaches of the state.

This historical development is marked by two distinct trends. The first is a reduction in the number of sponsoring institutions and organizations, and the second is a closer co-operation between these sponsors and responsible school officials. Both trends have contributed to an increase in the educational value of speech contest work. They have assisted the speech people in making their maximum contribution under a minimum of friction with the other programs of the school.

One of the chief forces which led to the trends mentioned above was the commercial sponsorship of interscholastic competitions. Once speech contests were well established, they became fair game for any group or organization which desired either publicity, or the making of an honest contribution to student training in speech or to Americanism in general. Every type of speech contest was tried. Debate, discussion, oratory, and extempore speaking were the most popular. The contests ranged from those strictly within one city to state-wide and national competitions. The sponsors covered many types including patriotic, civic, and commercial organizations. Prizes ran as high as thousands of dollars for individual winners. The vast majority of these speech events were conducted with no assistance from trained speech people. The standards of judging were from one to three generations behind the times, and some of the instructions given judges actually penalized effective modern speaking. Even if the contests had been well administered some action would have been necessary because no school could possibly participate in *all* of them and still hold classes. In the majority of states today the high-school principals and the speech teachers are working together to secure and maintain a conservative, responsible, and effective contest program.

The work of the National University Extension Association in speech contests has been constructive. It is little appreciated and even little understood in many circles. The first high-school debate which determined anything like a national championship took place in 1928 when Suffolk High School, whose debaters had won the championship of Virginia, and Harts-horne High School, whose debaters were champions of Oklahoma, met before



the National House of Representatives in Washington, D. C. This debate led Professor Ted Beaird of the University of Oklahoma Extension Division to see the possibilities of a nation-wide annual high-school debate tournament. He presented the idea to the NUEA and was promptly made chairman of a committee to supervise the tournament. After several years the National Forensic League was organized to take it over and the tournament was enlarged to include other speech events. The NUEA continues to play an important role in the program by assisting in the selection of the national high-school debate topic and by printing an annual *Debate Handbook* on the question which is selected. This work is done by the NUEA Committee on Debate Materials and Interstate Co-operation. Harold G. Ingham, of the Extension Service of the University of Kansas, is chairman.

One of the most wholesome signs that speech contest work has become an integral part of the educational picture is the entry into the speech contest field of a nationally recognized high-school magazine. Scholastic Publications, which for years have been outstanding for their services to high schools, published *The Scholastic Debater* quarterly last year as an experiment. This year the magazine will be published monthly from September through April as *The Scholastic Speaker and Debater*. It is being co-sponsored by the NUEA and the National Forensic League. The magazine will carry materials and items of interest to speech contest people. While the chief emphasis will be on debate, other types of speech contests will receive attention. Since the magazine will be distributed as an insert in the "Teachers'" edition, it will be free of charge to all schools already receiving that edition. Directors of forensics have been bombarded by so many "service" publications, good and bad, that a nationally recognized one which is not fundamentally a money-making scheme is more than welcome.

#### ADMINISTRATION

One of the perennial problems in the administration of any program of competition is the selection of "top management." In the centralization of sponsorship of speech contests some states have acted unwisely by placing all competitions under one organization with one person responsible for all. There are three main groups involved in interscholastic competition: speech, athletics, and music. By their very nature it would be unusual to find one man who is well informed in any two let alone all three of them. When one man is to direct all three the most natural selection is the athletic manager because his activities involve more schools and more students than either of the other two. Speech and music (and the educational process) have suffered in several states where this experiment has been tried. In every instance where such a telescoping has worked successfully it is a tribute to the man who is heading the program rather than an endorsement of the system. Each of these activities must be in charge of a person who is conversant with the problems and educational philosophies of that specific technique.



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In 1932 the Oratorical Association and the Extempore Speaking League were combined and the following year these two united with the Debate League to form the Michigan High School Forensic Association, the management of which was placed with the extension service of the state university. To permit a closer co-operation among interested groups of educators, a State Forensic Council was then established. This council consisted of two representatives from each of three organizations: the Michigan Association of Teachers of Speech, the Michigan Conference of City Superintendents, and the Michigan Secondary-School Association. During the past year, two representatives have been added from the forensic coaches of the state.

This historical development is marked by two distinct trends. The first is a reduction in the number of sponsoring institutions and organizations, and the second is a closer co-operation between these sponsors and responsible school officials. Both trends have contributed to an increase in the educational value of speech contest work. They have assisted the speech people in making their maximum contribution under a minimum of friction with the other programs of the school.

One of the chief forces which led to the trends mentioned above was the commercial sponsorship of interscholastic competitions. Once speech contests were well established, they became fair game for any group or organization which desired either publicity, or the making of an honest contribution to student training in speech or to Americanism in general. Every type of speech contest was tried. Debate, discussion, oratory, and extempore speaking were the most popular. The contests ranged from those strictly within one city to state-wide and national competitions. The sponsors covered many types including patriotic, civic, and commercial organizations. Prizes ran as high as thousands of dollars for individual winners. The vast majority of these speech events were conducted with no assistance from trained speech people. The standards of judging were from one to three generations behind the times, and some of the instructions given judges actually penalized effective modern speaking. Even if the contests had been well administered some action would have been necessary because no school could possibly participate in *all* of them and still hold classes. In the majority of states today the high-school principals and the speech teachers are working together to secure and maintain a conservative, responsible, and effective contest program.

The work of the National University Extension Association in speech contests has been constructive. It is little appreciated and even little understood in many circles. The first high-school debate which determined anything like a national championship took place in 1928 when Suffolk High School, whose debaters had won the championship of Virginia, and Harts-horne High School, whose debaters were champions of Oklahoma, met before

the National House of Representatives in Washington, D. C. This debate led Professor Ted Beaird of the University of Oklahoma Extension Division to see the possibilities of a nation-wide annual high-school debate tournament. He presented the idea to the NUEA and was promptly made chairman of a committee to supervise the tournament. After several years the National Forensic League was organized to take it over and the tournament was enlarged to include other speech events. The NUEA continues to play an important role in the program by assisting in the selection of the national high-school debate topic and by printing an annual *Debate Handbook* on the question which is selected. This work is done by the NUEA Committee on Debate Materials and Interstate Co-operation. Harold G. Ingham, of the Extension Service of the University of Kansas, is chairman.

One of the most wholesome signs that speech contest work has become an integral part of the educational picture is the entry into the speech contest field of a nationally recognized high-school magazine. Scholastic Publications, which for years have been outstanding for their services to high schools, published *The Scholastic Debater* quarterly last year as an experiment. This year the magazine will be published monthly from September through April as *The Scholastic Speaker and Debater*. It is being co-sponsored by the NUEA and the National Forensic League. The magazine will carry materials and items of interest to speech contest people. While the chief emphasis will be on debate, other types of speech contests will receive attention. Since the magazine will be distributed as an insert in the "Teachers'" edition, it will be free of charge to all schools already receiving that edition. Directors of forensics have been bombarded by so many "service" publications, good and bad, that a nationally recognized one which is not fundamentally a money-making scheme is more than welcome.

#### ADMINISTRATION

One of the perennial problems in the administration of any program of competition is the selection of "top management." In the centralization of sponsorship of speech contests some states have acted unwisely by placing all competitions under one organization with one person responsible for all. There are three main groups involved in interscholastic competition: speech, athletics, and music. By their very nature it would be unusual to find one man who is well informed in any two let alone all three of them. When one man is to direct all three the most natural selection is the athletic manager because his activities involve more schools and more students than either of the other two. Speech and music (and the educational process) have suffered in several states where this experiment has been tried. In every instance where such a telescoping has worked successfully it is a tribute to the man who is heading the program rather than an endorsement of the system. Each of these activities must be in charge of a person who is conversant with the problems and educational philosophies of that specific technique.

## CONTESTS

The number and types of speech contests vary from state to state and from year to year. The NFL conducts contests in debate, original oratory, oratorical declamation, humorous declamation, dramatic declamation, and extempore speaking. It also sponsors the National Student Congress. Many states conduct all of these contests, some hold competitions in a limited number of them while others hold some of these and others. An example of the latter is the Iowa High School Forensic League which has contests in interpretative reading and radio speaking as well as debate and discussion, extempore speaking, and original oratory. A list of all of the contests which are held in one or more states in this country would be more impressive than valuable. Some specific comments about the problems and development of some of the more popular events should be enlightening.

## DEBATE

Debate is probably the most popular of all of the extracurriculum speech activities. This popularity is accounted for in part by the fact that debate has additional values for the participant because it is a team proposition. Debate and dramatics stand alone in this respect in the speech field. All others are based upon individual performance. Every state in the Union has adopted the two-man team in place of the three-man team which was used originally. Time limits vary but not widely. Most high-school debates have constructive speeches from eight to ten minutes in length with rebuttals from three to five minutes. Some states have done experimental work with single-rebuttal debates, the Oregon plan and variations of this cross-examination type of debate. Audience participation through an open forum has been tried in several instances. These new types have been tried in both non-decision and decision debates. This constructive attitude on the part of the directors is one of the chief guarantees of the future of debate as an educational technique. Whatever changes are needed to keep abreast of the times, these will be made.

During the past fifteen years there has been a real revolution in the type of speaking used in high-school debates. As late as the "twenties" the average high-school debate was a declamation contest (the constructive speeches) followed by a debate (the rebuttals). All constructive speeches were memorized. The better teams merely used a bit of initial rebuttal and perhaps a few words of adaption injected occasionally in the speech. The "revolution" has been a change to extempore speaking in the constructive speeches. The debate now starts with the first negative constructive speech. Obviously, the first affirmative must be prepared and cannot adapt to anything in the debate. After that, the team that is speaking extempore has an enormous advantage. It quickly outmaneuvers opponents who use prepared speeches and it was the consistent winning of this type of speaking that led to such wide-spread adoption of this style of speaking in debate. It is still not used exclusively but

indications are that it soon will be. The casual reader must not interpret this as meaning that debaters are giving unprepared speeches. The speaking is "extempore" not "impromptu." The material used in the constructive speeches is carefully worked out but the final wording, and even the final organization, is done during the debate. This permits the material to be directed against the arguments which the opposition has already used rather than against what it was believed they *might* use. Debate has come a long way and it is now distinctly modern.

#### ORATORY

Oratory may be defined as that branch of formal public speaking which arises from great convictions. When high-school orators observe this definition their work is usually good, when they ignore it their orations are frequently inferior. For example, when a farm boy writes an oration about some phase of the Federal farm program which is within his grasp; when a negro student writes an oration entitled, "On Being Black;" when any thoughtful high-school student writes an oration concerning juvenile delinquency; those are orations. They come from the heart and emotions are involved. Artificiality disappears and genuine communication takes place. Compare these efforts with the orations written for specific oratorical contests on such subjects as "Thomas Jefferson" or "The Constitution." The subjects are excellent but not as topics for orations for high-school students. More and more these orations are reflecting the hopes, disappointments, dreams, and



High-school students participating in a school debate. (Photo by courtesy of Prof. Karl Robinson, Department of Speech Education, Northwestern University.)

ambitions of the students who write and deliver them. By this change the speech teachers have once more made a constructive contribution to the thinking of their students.

#### DECLAMATION

In the United States three types of declamation contest are recognized. They are oratorical, humorous, and dramatic.

Oratorical declamation is the delivery of a speech, from memory, which was originally written (and probably delivered) by some other person. One of the serious problems in this event has been the discovery of fresh and worthwhile material. In 1922 an oratorical declamation contest was held in Michigan in which, of the ten speakers, eight gave "Spartacus to the Gladiators" and the other two gave the "Call to Arms." While this was probably not typical it is indicative of a condition which needed attention. In current contests many modern speeches are heard. Some of the better orations written by college and university students for their contests are also being used.

The contest has been attacked on the ground that it is not original and, therefore, not creative in character. In many states participation in oratorical declamation is limited to freshmen and sophomores. At this level it has much merit since it permits a student to gain confidence by the delivery of a memorized speech before an audience. Many an outstanding debater, orator, or extempore speaker received his first encouragement by taking part in a declamation contest.

Humorous declamation is the delivery, from memory, of a humorous selection written by someone else. Dramatic declamation is the same type of contest except that the material is dramatic in nature. There is a tendency, which is increasing, to use material from good works of literature, cuttings from novels, plays, short stories, or essays, rather than the tear-jerking alliterative grist which has been laboriously ground out for the "trade." Only by continuing to use this good material can these competitions be defended.

#### EXTEMPORE SPEAKING

Of all the standard events, extempore speaking is the most recent development in the speech contest field. There are many ways in which the contests are conducted. In general they have two things in common. They are based upon wide reading and the specific speech is prepared within a relatively short period of time, just before the contest. This period of time rarely exceeds an hour. The topic upon which a contestant is to speak is drawn by lot from a large number of topics. Sometimes the speaker is permitted to draw two or three topics and take his choice. The topics are selected from specified reading sources. These sources vary widely in the several states. Two examples will illustrate. In the Iowa High School Forensic League they are to be taken from the daily press issues for the three months preceding the contest. In the Michigan High School Forensic Association they are taken from topics which have been discussed in *News Week* and *Time* magazines during the

three-month period preceding the contest. Although the examples given seem quite different it is obvious that the topics in the two states would be substantially alike. Speeches vary in length in the several states, ranging from five to eight minutes. In some instances a minimum, as well as a maximum, time is set and a speaker is penalized if he violates either limit. In other states the contestants question each other after the speech and the questions and answers are judged as part of the contest. In Wisconsin the judges question each speaker. Extempore speaking ranks with debate as a developer of real communication.

#### OTHER CONTESTS

A canvass of the nation would reveal many more competitions which are in use in a limited number of states. Among these are one-act play contests and festivals, interpretative reading contests, radio speaking contests and others. Some of these may develop in popularity until they replace standard events of today. Radio speaking would appear to have much to recommend it as a modern activity.

#### OTHER EXTRACURRICULUM SPEECH ACTIVITIES

The speech people of the country have demonstrated both initiative and originality in their community service programs. These are so varied that a complete discussion is impossible. Two will illustrate the point. One is the presentation of programs before religious, social, civic, patriotic, and educational groups in the community. These are usually varied in nature, depending upon the time permitted. They include the delivery of contest numbers from the various individual events, one-act plays, debates, and discussions. In some instances variety is achieved by including musical numbers. The entertained organization, in most instances, pays transportation costs. This is an ideal medium for selling the school to the community and, when properly managed, it is a constructive addition to an educational program.

The second example is the Speakers' Bureaus which were organized in many high schools to function during the war emergency. They furnished high-school students as speakers for civilian defense programs, bond sale drives, salvage drives, and other emergency efforts. Several of the state forensic organizations awarded Certificates of Merit to students who participated in these programs.

In a few isolated instances, and with completely patriotic motives, some schools have discarded their regular speech contest programs and have substituted these Speakers' Bureaus, with unfortunate results. The backbone of these bureaus is the group of talented students who have been developed by the contest program, particularly the debaters. When the program which developed the speakers in the first place has been abandoned the school is in reality "grinding seed corn." After one year the program deteriorates. Any extracurriculum speech program, to be effective, must have balance, must be



administered with sound judgment, and must always be integrated with the total educational picture in the community.

#### JUDGING

Many of the often repeated criticisms of the speech contest program are, in the final analysis, only criticisms of the standards of judging which are being used in that area. Edward Palzer, of Malad City, Idaho, suggests that a weakness of many speech contests is that the student is encouraged to make isolated speech skills "stick out" so the judges will give him an excellent rating on these, then add them up as in arithmetic. The result places a premium on negative virtues. Palzer is criticizing the standards of judging in use in that area, not speech contests. There is an unavoidable tendency to coach that which meets approval. By this device the judges unavoidably dictate the type of speech performance which will be found in a given area. A perfect example of this is the adoption of the extempore style of speaking in high-school debating. It began in the middle west. Judges voted for the teams which used it. The other coaches shouted long and loud that their debaters "were more fluent," "sounded better organized," and "gave *constructive* speeches." The judges continued to vote for the extempore style, other things being equal. The next year (or two years later) the defeated team was using the extempore style.

One of the reasons for judging occasionally being "behind the times" is that for this function we frequently call upon outstanding performers from the preceding generation. It is only natural for them to vote according to the standards which were in vogue when they were winning. Every speech teacher knows individuals who, although advanced in years, are completely modern in their point of view of speech. Nevertheless, this tendency of judging to be one generation behind the performance and the responsibility of judging to be one generation ahead is worthy of our serious consideration when contemplating a criticism of speech contest work. One other factor should always be kept in mind. It is easy to look upon our performers as good and the winners as inferior, even when the judging has been well done.

#### CONCLUSION

Under ideal conditions the extracurriculum program would exist along with a complete curriculum program of speech. It would represent an opportunity for the talented speech student to gain additional training. It would resemble the extracurriculum athletic program in a school which had an adequate physical education and a sound intramural program.

The directors of extracurriculum speech work are the connecting link between an educational discipline and community service; between speech work and one of the strongest vocational influences in the high-school picture; upon whose sound judgment and hard work depend the continuation and growth of training in one of the most modern as well as one of the most fundamental of the educational techniques; namely, speech.



## PART IV.—SPEECH CURRICULUM PLANNING

### CHAPTER XI

#### Integrating Speech With Other Subjects

##### I. REPORTS ON INTEGRATION by

WESLEY A. WIKSELL and RALPH C. LEYDEN  
of *Stephens College*

**I**N the last two decades significant concepts in secondary-school education have been brought to the attention of educators and the public. Related to the needs of youth in current American democracy, the concepts have been given weight by teachers whose pupils must become useful and happy citizens through a greater social efficiency. One concept that pupils are whole personalities; that they must see and understand relationships; and that they, as individuals, must confront all of their problems with all of the knowledge, skills, habits, and attitudes that are applicable.

Most teachers of speech will agree with Professor Baird, that the fundamental goal of instruction in speech is the development of the individual recording to his needs:

The first and most obvious of these premises is that speech instruction should be based upon individual needs and capacities. . . . The second principle about which I should like to speak is this: speech training should provide for social integration. The assumption here is that every response has social implications. . . . Still another principle, the corollary of speech as a social tool, is that speech education should be a "reconstruction of experience." Our goal, then, will be to substitute activity for subjects, to make the classroom a miniature world, to carry the pupils into that world, and so enable them to rebuild their experience by reconstructing their ideas in the light of newly discovered relationships between the parts of "their" experience. . . . Finally, may I refer to one other fundamental of our speech educational philosophy: experimentation and evaluation are its moving spirit.<sup>1</sup>

With this philosophy of speech, speech teachers have, over a long period of years, correlated the work of their speech classes as well as their extracurriculum activities of speech with the other subject matter of the curriculum.

##### SPEECH AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Speech and the other subjects in the eighth grade were integrated in an experiment conducted at the Castor High School, Bienville Parish, Louisiana:

The class decided, after much deliberation, that it would like to make a study of the different factors leading to an understanding of citizenship. . . . In pursuing the study, a need for committees and chairmen, each chairman choosing one element for his problem. . . . The chairmen then met with the teacher and outlined a plan of procedure for making the study; . . . The class met as a group each day for a discussion of individual and class difficulties that had arisen. It was in these meetings

<sup>1</sup>Baird, A. C. "The Educational Philosophy of The Teacher of Speech." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXIV. 1938. Pp. 547-552.

that the teacher found opportunity for emphasizing the importance of good speech, and adding drills for correcting any speech errors. . . . It was decided that each committee should plan a program for presenting its contributions to the class. All programs were to be rendered orally. . . . The last step in the unit consisted of taking the most interesting contributions from each group and weaving them into a complete program. This final presentation consisted of monologs, dialogs, choral readings, dramatizations, story telling, speeches, and even laboratory experiments. Every child in the class had at least two opportunities for appearing before the group. . . . In the above-described unit, which lasted for eight weeks, history, language, home economics, arithmetic, natural science, and civics were integrated with speech. Each specific subject was treated not as a subject, but as a part of pupil development.<sup>2</sup>

Konigsberg<sup>3</sup> and others presented a report of how instruction in speech, during wartime, fuses timely subject matter of the social studies area with the skills of speech. The New York High School Division used the procedure reported below as a basis for recommending the organization of discussion groups in all high schools of the city.

Public discussion is the cornerstone of democracy. . . . Teachers of speech have a special responsibility in this matter, that of training the youth of America, through courses in discussion, to become familiar with the forms and methods of group thinking. . . . Such a course, in this time of crises, should not only include a knowledge of techniques and a participation in the various forms of discussion, but also should place special emphasis on the consideration of problems that confront the American people today.<sup>4</sup>

Another example of speech playing an important role in mastering the social sciences comes from the Monterey Union High School, California.

There was no attempt here to circumvent the necessity for the acquisition of the technical skills in oral and written expression, but the procedures for attaining these skills were changed. The approach was to become functional. The students were to learn by doing in more meaningful situations than can be attained by continuous formal drill. . . . The procedures in these courses emphasize student . . . responsibility. The unit of work in the courses covered a four-day period. During this time class organizations took over complete control of the program for one of these days. In the future it is planned to extend this period of self-direction. In this respect the general plan is gradually to increase the student responsibility as he appears able to accept it. Such exercises as these appeared to toughen his social fiber, increase his initiative, heighten his sense of social responsibility, and give him a real and meaningful opportunity to gain experience in co-operating with others. When such personal traits become fixed in a human personality they should lead to a better adjusted individual in all his life activities as well as "on the job."<sup>5</sup>

<sup>2</sup>Minchew, E. R. "Integrated Teaching in the Secondary School." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXI. 1938. Pp. 373-375

<sup>3</sup>Konigsberg, Evelyn, Douris, Elizabeth A., Edgecomb, Charles F., Hofman, Phyllis M., and Leahy, Muriel G. "Teaching Public Discussion During the War". *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXIX. 1943. P. 13.

<sup>4</sup>This article also contains a list of appropriate topics and an extensive source list of current pamphlet material which is obtainable.

In the Summer Training School of Alabama Polytechnic Institute (Auburn) correlation of a unit in senior English and social science provided motives for reading and development of other skills involved in the writing of one-act plays based upon subjects studied in social science. Group discussion and performance of the plays written provided many opportunities for developing oral skills in purposeful situations.

The question of whether or not the activity had been valuable for the students had to be answered. The following evidences of desirable outcomes, were observed or measured:

1. Greater interest in significant activities particularly of a creative nature. This may have been caused by the students feeling a sense of reality and having a varied means of expression.
2. A desire to read widely on a subject.
3. Success in making bibliographies and using source materials.
4. A more sympathetic understanding of problems than usual.
5. This ability to study independently for accurate knowledge and to work co-operatively on a group project.
6. The ability to engage in creative thinking and self-expression.
7. A desire to go beyond the traditional activities of English and social science classes and to undertake writing plays and producing them.

The conclusion was drawn that many desirable outcomes may be obtained through correlation.<sup>9</sup>

More incidental correlation of speech instruction and social science subject matter is illustrated in the following report.

Part of the social studies program includes a current history forum for the school one evening a week. At each meeting, time is set aside for boys to present topics in which they are interested to the school and to answer questions which may be asked them. Teachers from both departments co-operate in making suggestions to boys regarding public speaking in general and specifically regarding defects in speech, pronunciation, presentation, and preparation. The training of pupils in the use of the library for looking up information on oral and written topics is the concern of the classroom teachers in both subjects.<sup>7</sup>

In the examples which have been cited of correlation of speech activities and social studies and in numerous other examples to be found in the literature of integration, the reading, speaking, and writing phases of instruction have been employed as a medium or tool in the acquiring of social science subject matter. Speech activities have played a vital and essential part not only in the group planning of work but in the development and synthesis of materials studied. Interchange of information and ideas and final presentations of results of units of study have employed group discussion, oral reports, speeches,

<sup>9</sup>Frisbee, R. W., and Hinds, J. L. "Keeping a Job." *School and Society*. Vol. L. 1939. Pp. 373-374.

<sup>7</sup>Coulter, N., and Hightower, E. "Let's Work Together," *Social Studies*. Vol. XXXI. 1940. P. 166.

<sup>7</sup>Smith, A. "Correlation of English and the Social Studies," *School and Society*. Vol. XXXIX. 1939. P. 350.

dramatizations, readings, interviews, parliamentary procedure, and other forms of speech activity. As has been noted some of the experiments have devoted definite instruction time to training in these forms of speech presentation, whereas others only make note of using speech as an important means of communication in the correlation of subjects.

The teacher of speech, however, has an important contribution to make in teaching students more effective ways of collecting, organizing, and presenting information or ideas. Efficiency and effectiveness in speech situations will save time and aid in unifying the subject matter studied. Thus it would seem advisable in correlated programs to provide opportunity for definite instruction in speech activities. The oral report may of course be used as effectively in English classes as in the social sciences. Here is what one wise teacher did:

The American Legion in La Grange for a number of years has sponsored a Sunday Evening Club at which outstanding lecturers, musicians, and other famous personages have appeared. . . .

Interviews with the noted persons appearing on these programs have been contributing factors to interesting school activities through the English department of the Oak School. As soon as the program for the season is announced in the fall, the members of the eighth grade make arrangements to interview particular persons on the program, with the understanding that if either of them is unable to keep his appointment, it becomes his responsibility to arrange for a substitute. . . . Seldom are they refused an interview, for the sponsors of the program realize that these children have a definite purpose in mind and conduct themselves in a proper manner.

The desire for social approval inspires the child to speak well before the famous person visiting the community. Since the student realizes that he has been granted the interview when his classmates desired the privilege, it becomes imperative for him to report his experience in an effective manner.

. . . Children with incentives such as these not only listen well, but they observe how important it is that others do likewise. . . .

. . . Each reporter is responsible for an oral report which he proudly shares with his classmates on the following day, and he posts a written report for students, faculty members, and visitors to enjoy during the season.

. . . In numerous ways these enjoyable experiences have given the personal touch to true artistry to over a thousand boys and girls who point with pride to an intimate record of impressions and opinions of famous people for the last six years.<sup>4</sup>

#### SPEECH AND VOCATIONS

In the area of vocational guidance and training the following examples will illustrate how speech activities have again been utilized in an integration of communication skills and the subject matter of another field. Although the example given is that of a college, the integration which it describes is equally adaptable to secondary education, and to a certain extent, has already been employed in units of high-school speech courses which stress the business applications of speech training:

<sup>4</sup>McAfee, Alta. "Interviews with Celebrated Persons Motivate English," *English Journal*. Vol. XXXI. 1942. Pp. 32-235.

Feeling that the World's Fair would be a fruitful source of employment for the college man, the Placement Director of Fordham University, Mr. Dwight F. Bracken, decided to sponsor a short course for juniors, seniors, and recent alumni—a course that would enable the student, upon its completion, to have something concrete to offer a prospective employer. Because it was recognized that speech could best be used as the co-ordinating subject, a subject that could integrate all aspects and uses of the other fields to be considered, I was invited by the Administration to function in the capacity of co-author and co-ordinator of the proposed course. . . .

The logical starting point was a discussion and an understanding of the *Functional Origins of Fairs*. . . . From there it went on to such subjects as *Building the World of Tomorrow*. . . . *The Art of Addressing Small Groups*. . . . *Sales Psychology*. . . . *Voice and Diction*. . . . *Showmanship*. . . . and *Personal Hygiene for World's Fair Workers*. . . .

By way of recapitulation, the last meeting of the course was devoted to a group discussion, with the entire course faculty as a panel. . . .

Now, besides definitely aiding between two and three hundred upperclassmen and alumni in securing positions at the Fair just what do we feel we achieved by the presentation of the World's Fair Personnel Course? We believe we succeed in . . . stimulating knowledge of business psychology and salesmanship; in developing an ability to see that point of view of the other person that enabled the students to act as true hosts; and, above all, in demonstrating to each student the immense importance attached to good speech by business and social leaders—as well as demonstrating how speech cuts across every area studied.<sup>9</sup>

#### SPEECH AND THE CURRICULUM

Though many of the foregoing examples have illustrated the integration of speech with well-defined units of study in specific subject areas, there are many instances in which the instruction in speech is not confined to only one other field. In its correlation with other areas of knowledge, it frequently cuts across the entire curriculum. A few examples may serve to illustrate how speech instruction has thus aided in integrating the skills of speech with other "content" subjects. Dieckhoff relates such a type of integration.

The public speaking classroom became a laboratory, a room in which talks for other classes might be prepared and rehearsed. Oral work required in any class—English, history, shop, civics—or any talk which had to be given before a club, Sunday School class, in the assembly—was first to be tried out on the class in public speaking. (It is amusing to note that this was an idea most difficult for the student to grasp, for hitherto his energies had gone toward disguising the fact that the talk given in public speaking on Friday was the same one given in English III the preceding Tuesday, or *vice versa*.) There the students and instructor might compliment originality, suggest changes, object to structure, or criticize delivery. With benefit of correction and rehearsal, the student was then to make the necessary changes and offer the work before the audience for whom it was originally intended. . . .

<sup>9</sup>Brastd, F. K. "A Utility Speech Course: An Experiment in Cooperation," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXVI. 1940. Pp. 633-635.

It will be noted that eighteen talks were required, ranging in length from one to six minutes (ten in the case of the children's stories), with the provision for a final. The semester offered ample time for each of the twenty-seven students to give all of his talks, with opportunity for discussion of the work offered for sharing opinions on speakers heard in the city or over the radio, for lectures and discussions on technique, for the weekly Magic of Speech broadcast. . . .<sup>10</sup>

Harlan M. Adams of Stanford University has presented the basic concepts of the place of speech in a unified curriculum:

The speech arts (a term which may be used to identify all forms of oral communication) are, then, a most significant element in the modern unified curriculum. Two important corollaries of the assertion should be considered. First, it recognizes the primary importance of oral communication for the exchange of ideas in any social situation. Second, it connotes the inseparable relationship of content and form in the teaching of all types of speech activities. . . .

The comprehensive nature of the speech arts easily explains their integrative value. They include any and all activities involving oral communication. For example, classroom recitation, conversation, dictation (to a stenographer or to the Ediphone), any form of debate or discussion (including panels and symposiums), pictures, and television. They originate with the most fascinating subject in the world, ourselves. And they include as content all fields of common knowledge. . . .

For example, in one institution a group of students after having gathered and practiced their material in the speech arts class discussed in the orientation class the question, "Why go to college?" Another group, having discussed modern labor problems in the speech arts class, presented their discussion to a group in a social studies course. As an extra-curricular forensic activity a discussion of problems of neutrality which have been considered in their social studies work was held with another college group. Public speech as a semi-formal presentation may involve the preparation of book reviews for any course, can include reports on scientific discoveries in the natural science or hygiene courses, for example, and can involve pronunciation exercises in the foreign languages. Dramatizations for both the stage and the radio are especially valuable in the literature courses, where they should include emphasis upon personal development both for the student speaker and for the listener. Finally, the Speech Arts Bureau is a youth organization which attempts to provide entertainment and discussion programs for the community.<sup>11</sup>

Karl Robinson, after close association and observation of the core curriculum at the Northwestern-Evanston New School, suggests a speech program for the core curriculum.

Let us discuss certain suggestions for a speech program which would raise the efficiency of core work and would seem, therefore, to insure a larger measure of practical success for such a plan for curriculum organization.

#### A. Plan of Organization.

Such a program would necessarily have to be organized so that it would provide the maximum amount of benefit to the student. It should, furthermore, be de-

<sup>10</sup>Dieckhoff, Ruth. "An Integrated Course in Public Speaking." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXIII. 1937. Pp. 469-473.

<sup>11</sup>Adams, Harlan M. "Some Activities For a Speech Arts Program in the Unified Curriculum." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXV. 1939. Pp. 617-619.

signed to meet the speech needs of all students. It should be in keeping with the educational philosophy and method of the core program. The following divisions are suggested as guides for the development of a basic core area for speech or oral communication:

1. *A basic core area for speech or oral communication.* This area would come in the first semester of core work (assuming here that the school is a three- or four-year high school) we could easily place this at the intermediate level. It should cover at least an entire semester and should include these fundamental elements:

- a. Investigation and gathering materials.
- b. Organizing materials for oral presentation.
- c. Spoken language.
- d. Adequate use of voice.
- e. Effective bodily action.
- f. Personal adjustment and growth
- g. The development of social attitudes.
- h. The development of standards of criticism.
- i. The securing of adequate records.

2. *Integration through core work.* The second part of our program would be concerned with following up the basic core with integration of the speech work during the entire program of core work. The principal methods used in this process would be as follow:

- a. Constant re-emphasis during core work of the fundamentals of organization, presentation, personal growth, social adjustment, and criteria for evaluation.
- b. The development and study of other types of oral communication which could be used in core work:
  - (1) The forum
  - (2) The symposium
  - (3) The panel discussion
  - (4) The small conference group
  - (5) Legislative debate
  - (6) Narration and story telling
  - (7) Dialectic and conversation
  - (8) Dramatization
  - (9) Interpretation
- c. Possible development of other core areas in this field according to student need and interest.

B. *Teacher Needs in the Program.*

Such a program as we have outlined necessitates certain things with respect to teachers. These needs appear to be as follows:

1. All core teachers well grounded in basic techniques of speech, or
2. All core teachers to be teachers of speech with broad subject-matter backgrounds and other essential qualities of superior ability and skill needed in core work.



3. A speech specialist to handle workshop activities and serve as an adviser to the staff with respect to the effectiveness of core work in oral communications and further integration of such work throughout the later core activities.<sup>12</sup>

Speech as an interesting activity need not displace special classes in speech. This is the conclusion of Harrison M. Karr, reporting on speech training in forty-two high schools of Los Angeles County, California, in which there were varying degrees of integration:

Two possible contributions of the study are: (1) If the investigated schools may be taken as typical of integrated schools elsewhere, there is no indication that the integrated program is tending to reduce the amount of special speech training. Although speech activity is extensive within the integrated program, this activity is not supplanting the speech classes. Rather, it is supplementing the usual speech training and is providing a motivation for the technical instruction within the specialized speech classes. (2) It is not necessary for the school to engage in formal debates and oratory contests in order to develop student enthusiasm for speech activities. Successful substitutes for these contests are being utilized in several schools. Some of these substitutes are: lecture forums, panel forums, symposia, other types of discussions, speakers' bureaus, and student political assemblies.<sup>13</sup>

#### CONCLUSION

A study of the literature of the core curriculum concept in education, and of the examples of partial integration or fusion of areas of instruction reveals that speech activities can play an essential part in the integration. Speech activities combined with reading and writing serve as important tools in individual and group use of knowledge, ideas, and attitudes. Since speech is thus widely used in the integration of courses, the speech teacher has not only a challenge but an opportunity to correlate his teaching of speech skills with the work of other courses. In the past, the speech class has brought the subject matter of other areas into its classroom. In the future, administrators may wish to give speech skills a prominent place in all classrooms. Adoption of a core curriculum in which speech skills are taught by specialists is one solution. Such a program need not be limited to the secondary-school level but may extend throughout the twelve years of education as visualized by Baird:

Just how should the principle work in the school system? First, the program calls for speech from nursery to graduate school. We now have the spectacle of pupils who talk almost every minute of the day and at every level. We also have the spectacle of those people talking with little or no speech guidance. Second, each locality and each school should arrange its own curriculum to meet its own needs. Schools are almost as unique as individuals. Third, this individual program should be flexible enough to allow for adjustment to a given group and to each pupil within that group. Fourth, the elementary school program, to illustrate, will be administered by the speech supervisor, through whom each teacher will intelligently direct the endless speaking experiences of the child. Fifth, at least three types of teaching pro-

<sup>12</sup>Robinson, Karl. "Speech—The Heart of the Core Curriculum." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXVI. 1940. Pp. 374-376.

<sup>13</sup>Karr, Harrison M. "An Investigation of the Speech Activities in the High Schools of Los Angeles County." Doctor's Thesis. (Dissertation) University of Southern California at Los Angeles.

jects will be set up: (1) group and individual exercises; (2) discussion and conversation periods involving the typical school activities; (3) periods of organized talks by the pupils to their pupil audiences. Sixth, proceeding from the core-curriculum in speech on the secondary level will be the extra-curricular debates, discussions, original speaking, impersonation, acting, and interpretative reading.<sup>14</sup>

II. THE IMPLICATION FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA PROGRAM IN COMMUNICATION SKILLS,\* by

FRANKLIN H. KNOWER of the *State University of Iowa*

INTRODUCTION

**T**his report presents a review of an educational experiment in college training. It is included here, however, because of the implications it holds for the teaching of speech, and other communicative skills in secondary schools.

These implications are twofold. First, this program was the result of the fact that many students entered college who were sadly deficient in those communicative skills necessary for successful college work. Moreover, it was recognized that a large proportion of these students can acquire such skills if given efficient instruction over a reasonable period of time. If the student who applies for admission to the college already possesses the skills involved, he is excused from further required study of these basic skills in college. If he does not possess them, he is required by action of the faculty to continue their study until he reaches the necessary standard of achievement. If he cannot reach the required standard of performance, he will ordinarily be denied the degree unless in exceptional circumstances (such as a physical incapacity and compensating abilities) he is released from the requirement by a faculty committee.

The second implication is that the graduates of these secondary schools which do conduct an efficient program in the teaching of communicative skills will enjoy distinct advantages as college freshmen. They have acquired important assets for further education and for taking their place in society. When these students enter college they may proceed at once to take advantage of other opportunities to broaden their liberal education, or to more specialized work in the study of English and speech.

THE NEED FOR COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS

The faculty of the college has recognized that the need for teaching communicative skills cannot be ignored. Entering students are woefully weak in the mechanics of writing and speaking. Many cannot spell, punctuate, or otherwise put together correct English sentences. They speak with mumbled articulation, flat and monotonous voices, and tense or sloppy physical responses.

<sup>14</sup>Baird. *Op. Cit.* Pp. 547-548.

\*This program was developed and put into operation at The State University of Iowa in the fall of 1944 under the direction of Dean Harry Newburn, at that time Dean of the College of Liberal Arts. Other persons who participated most actively in planning the program reported here include E. C. Mabie, *chairman* of the Department of Speech; James Stroud of the College of Education; and John Gerber of the Department of English.

They have difficulty in finding, evaluating, and organizing ideas. They show little understanding of the methods of appropriate adjustment to various speech situations. The techniques of purposeful and skillful reading are foreign to their world. These are but a few of their faults in basic communicative skills. Such skills are vital to their education.

These students could be dismissed as incompetents. In some cases that is the explanation. But more often it is not the proper explanation. They simply have not been well taught. Students report to us that in all their high-school careers they have never written a theme, or made a speech. They were able to circumvent reading requirements and learned little from them. The colleges have set the pattern for instruction in English and it appears that many English teachers in high school, as in college, find little dignity or satisfaction in teaching composition. They want to be great literary scholars. They do not arrive as teachers until they establish a reputation as literary scholars! Teaching the basic skills in writing is beneath them. Accordingly, composition is ignored. There is little or no organized attempt in the country as a whole to teach reading or speaking. Where English teachers without training in speech have tried to teach it they were not prepared to do a thorough and responsible job. Of course this is the picture at its worst. Those students who have been well taught show the achievements of good teaching. This program, then, is the fruit of self-defense in the college. We must do the job that needs to be done for our students. But the students of those schools which do the job as it should be done receive recognition for their efforts.

#### THE OBJECTIVES OF THE PROGRAM

Just what are the objectives of this program? They are the fundamental skills of communication necessary for successful college work. First, we are concerned with the problem of analysis of the individual student. What are his levels of achievement in the various forms of communication? Are his deficiencies traceable to defects which cannot be eliminated or satisfactorily reduced by ordinary instruction? If we find this to be true we set up clinic instruction to treat special defects. But what of the more common cases? For them the objectives include reasonable mastery of such mechanics of writing as vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and punctuation, and such mechanics of speech as articulation, pronunciation, the use of the voice, and the visual aids to speech. We want students who can speak with confidence, poise, and taste in adjustment to the elements in common speech situations.

The college student should be well grounded in the methods of locating and using standard sources of information on various types of subjects. A focal point of emphasis in the course is motivation for the development of a breadth of interests in serious and academically worthy subject matter for *speaking* and *writing*. Ideas can and must be subjected by the speaker and writer to evaluation by common methods for testing ideas to throw light on their significance, soundness, and acceptability. The standard principles for

clear and effective organization or arrangement of ideas must be applied to achieve skill in both speaking and writing. The student must be able to read silently with reasonable speed, to adjust his speed to the purpose of his reading, and to use the devices in reading which help him achieve maximum comprehension of the ideas he finds on the printed page. The practical everyday devices by which students and teachers inform others of what they know, and by which they support their convictions with appropriate facts and reasoning should not be left to chance development. In all, the student must know how to combine these elements and processes into reasonably skillful and effective patterns of reading, speaking, and writing. These are the general objectives of our program. The better high schools are producing students who meet them. We consider them essential for good college work. Students who expect to succeed in college and in post-college careers will profit from early achievement of reasonable standards in them. And if students do not meet these standards before they arrive at college, they must meet them before they can expect to get very far in or with other educational achievements.

#### INTEGRATION IN COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS

Although the three forms of communication are integrated in this instructional program, we do not forget that it is reading, writing, and speaking that we want from our students. It is not called English or speech because we are not seeking just another departmental course. Although the departments of Education, English, Psychology, and Speech co-operate in administering and teaching this course, they operate not as several departments in this work, but rather under the directive of the college in rendering an inclusive college service. This enables them to draw upon the interests and resources of the entire college in the conduct of the program. While the separate forms of activity are studied independently as separate forms of activity, this plan of integration enables the specialists in the teaching of reading, speaking, and writing to economize educational effort by supplementing and reinforcing each other on those objectives which are common to all communication. This integration, however, is not allowed to interfere with the independent and unique objectives which must be attained in the separate form of activity.

#### OTHER GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF THE PROGRAM

A comprehensive set of evaluative and diagnostic examinations are given all entering freshmen to determine their needs and abilities in communicative skills. Detailed records of achievement and progress are made for each student. A central office is maintained where the extensive records are kept. These records are available to advisers and other responsible persons in the college who have use for such data. Students, parents, and college advisers are kept informed regularly of the student's evaluations and progress. Achievement examinations are offered at the end of each semester, at which time students finishing planned course programs, or those who have made such rapid

progress that they are recommended by their instructors for the examinations, are candidates for exemption from further class work. The expert services of the university testing and statistical bureaus are available for assistance in the preparation and administration of tests, and for research on teaching problems.

Students may receive up to twelve-semester credit hours for work in basic skill courses, of which courses in the communicative skills are only one of the types. If the student is required over the period of three or more semesters to register in these courses for more than twelve-semester hours, he must do the additional work and carry the course load in his schedule without credit. The requirement is thus seen to be not a course requirement but an achievement requirement.

Questions have been raised in some quarters as to whether or not this isn't strictly secondary-school work and not deserving of college credit. In answer it may be said the program is pitched to the level of intensity of college work. Although the work might be done at a slower pace in the high school, just as college mathematics, sciences, and language study may be done in the high school with recognition of work done there and carried on from that foundation in the student's program when he enters college, if he takes communicative skills in college he is expected to complete his requirements at an appropriate pace for college work.

There is no assumption that the requirements of this program will constitute the student's only study of speech or writing in college. He may elect as many courses as he wishes in these subjects. But his achievement in this course is the only college requirement in these subjects.

Students are urged to use the subject matter of other courses in communicative skill activities. A special library room provides stimulating, informative, and illustrative materials. A recording laboratory is used to help the student understand the relationship of his achievement in speaking to the desired standards. Opportunities are provided for the functional learning of communication activities in the educational community. Preparation for reports for other courses, participation in public speaking and dramatic activities, writing for the school paper and a special course magazine, and the presentation of various types of radio programs are regular projects in the course.

Regular weekly and occasional supplementary staff meetings are held for the co-ordination of the instructional program and the co-operative solution of common problems. Individual staff members share in the responsibility for the development of personal and committee projects for the course.

#### MAIN LINES OF ORGANIZATION OF THE COURSE

Variable course programs are set up to meet individual needs in the shortest possible number of semester periods. Students are shifted from one to another of these course programs until all standards are met. Most of the sections are organized in four semester-hour units, although some sections are two-semester-hour units. Needs for clinic or highly specialized individual in-

struction take precedence over other needs in the organization of the student's section assignment.

If the student falls just below the critical level for exemption he is put in a one-semester program. He may study all forms of communication or concentrate on the type of program he needs most. If he is found to be generally weak in the various tests he is put into a **two-semester program**. Here again he may work on the various types of activity simultaneously, or he may specialize in first one and then another activity until he attains proficiency in all. Many of the policies of course organization are still operated on an experimental basis, although the results of the first year's work show this flexible pattern of course organization highly efficient in meeting individual differences in needs and abilities.

#### THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PROGRAM

A pointed question which has been asked by secondary-school people is this: "should we attempt to duplicate this pattern of course organization in our institutions?" The writer's answer is, "not necessarily." The secondary school needs not try to duplicate this machinery. But it is our hope that as a result of this program more of our students in the future will come to us prepared to meet the minimum essential standards in communication. It means that they should find it to their advantage to see that their English program is so set up that it teaches students to write the ordinary prose of everyday living clearly and with acceptable standards of accuracy. It means that responsible teachers of reading and speaking should be employed to get results in teaching students to read and speak. These results may be achieved under a variety of methods of curriculum organization. If these fundamental objectives are achieved, they will be useful to students whether or not they go to college.

## CHAPTER XII

### Speech Programs in Large High Schools

- I. SOME INTRODUCTORY NOTES ON SPEECH IN THE LARGE HIGH SCHOOL  
by MEREL R. PARKS of the *Northwestern High School, Detroit*

**N**OW that the State Department is going to speak more freely and directly to the people, will it use a language they can understand? If it does not, if it speaks in abstract or rarefied terms, or in 'gobbledygook' (bureaucratic jargon), or if it sends out representatives who mumble into their manuscripts, it may as well abandon hope that the people of the United States will determine this country's foreign policy. That policy will be determined by the obstructionists and the demagogues. For they, like Hitler, understand the power of the spoken word." These are the words of Malvina Lindsay in a reprint from the *Washington Post*, January 3, 1945. She goes on to explain that many large and influential women's organizations, although vitally interested in public affairs, have ceased to invite government officials to address them because it is a waste of time.

Turning to the field of education we find some explanation of the situation. Until very recently we have not had any great number of trained teachers of speech below the college level and as a result few speech courses in high schools. In a poll taken some years ago among the higher paid officials in the Department of Agriculture over fifty per cent of them testified that if they were to repeat their college work they would take public speaking. Yet most of the agricultural colleges at that time did not give it nor did most of the high schools. If given at all it was by English teachers with secondary interest in speech. That is not true now and it will continue to grow less true. In a survey completed within the last month, it was found that all of the fifteen full-time speech teachers in Detroit (not counting speech correction teachers) have Master's degrees and all but two are speech majors, those two being speech minors. The results were approximately the same for Highland Park, Michigan; Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Passaic, New Jersey; Richmond Hill High School, New York; and Dallas, Texas, which were the schools surveyed.

Our basic philosophy is that speech is a skill indispensable to all future citizens. Many parents, taxpayers, and even some administrators have long looked upon speech mainly as an extracurriculum activity. In many of the large high schools only the exceptionally talented or those usually defective have received attention. The talented to a large extent secured their training through contests and the defective through the help of the speech correction teacher. Now no one will deny these two groups their right to training in the fundamentals of speech but what of the seventy-five or eighty per cent in the middle? Are they not also entitled to this same training? They have not received it in a program centered around extracurriculum activities. Hours



of training in debate had to pay dividends when the school orator or extempore speaker was to be chosen. That was the situation a few years ago. Fortunately it has improved. The speech contest remains and will remain, we hope, for many generations. Properly supervised it has its place. Doubtless it has been responsible for the training of many of the polished speakers we enjoy over the radio and in the lecture halls today. Furthermore, it has focused the attention of the community on the speech work and in many cases has been the entering wedge for speech classes in the school program. But it will as a rule continue to attract only the pupils already proficient in speech.

However, with more and better trained speech teachers, and with a greater interest by pupils and parents in speech activities has come a new type of extracurriculum activity. That is the intramural speech program. In the survey already mentioned, in thirteen Detroit high schools ranging in size from 1150 to 4500 students the number used in these extracurriculum activities ranged from 52 to 728. The average was 297. The total was 3864 or about ten per cent of the school enrollment. However, it was found that there were 314 pupils used in contests between schools and 3550 in contests within schools. In five Milwaukee high schools 531 pupils were used in contests between schools and 2033 in contests within schools. In all the schools reporting the percentages were approximately the same.

Now let us turn to the curriculum side of the speech program. In the past where there have been speech classes at all they have usually been elective, something to be chosen after all the other course requirements were fulfilled. In some schools pupils have not been made to feel that speech was basic to the study of other subjects and to all phases of living both within and without school. The philosophy of speech as social interaction without which people cannot share their experiences with each other, should be more widely accepted.

In recent surveys the number of schools reporting required speech courses was so small as to be practically negligible. This can only mean two things; both bad. *First*, the percentage of pupils receiving speech training will be small, and *second*, in most cases those needing it worst will not get it. They will not get it because it is human nature for us to avoid what is difficult and to select the subjects in which we can be sure of good grades. We have friends who have confided to us that they avoided speech because of fear of appearing before an audience but they were going to see that their younger brothers and sisters took it. Administrators do not have to be told that young people do not always use the best judgment in selecting their courses. They have to be guided sometimes into what is best for them, not what is easiest for them.

In Detroit high schools 2465 pupils are enrolled in elective speech courses not counting speech correction which cares for 995 more. This means only about seven per cent of the pupils are given general speech work. In Milwaukee approximately ten per cent are enrolled in speech classes and in the five other schools already mentioned about fifteen per cent attended speech classes. Pro-

fessor G. E. Densmore, chairman of the Department of Speech at the University of Michigan, made a survey within the last six months covering over five hundred schools in over half of the states of the Union. Included were twenty-six high schools with an enrollment of between two and three thousand students. The number of pupils enrolled in speech classes varied from thirty to five hundred, the average being two hundred and three, or again approximately ten per cent. Now counting the ten per cent serviced through extracurriculum activities and the ten per cent enrolled in speech courses and assuming there is no duplication in the above figures, which is a false assumption since some enrolled in classes are certainly also working in extracurriculum activities, we still have eighty per cent untouched by any speech work. Considering the basic need for speech, this is a grave indictment of the educational system and it should be remedied at once. Speech programs should be established to give students whatever type of educational assistance they need. The principal who believes in a speech program should be able to find a place for it.

## II. THE NEW YORK CITY COURSE OF STUDY IN SPEECH by

EVELYN KONIGSBERG of the *Richmond Hill High School, New York City*

**T**HE New York City course of study in speech for high schools provides for two terms of work in speech. The course was devised by a committee of licensed chairmen of speech departments who had been appointed by the superintendent to standardize and unify the speech work of the city. New York City has very special needs conditioned by the fact that the forty-seven academic high schools vary in size from those having a registration of about 1000 to those whose register runs over 10,000. These schools are scattered over a vast area and differ greatly as to the background of the students whom they draw. Consequently, any course of study designed to serve such a variety of students must be broad in scope and elastic enough to admit of variety of approach, method, emphasis, and interpretation. These things the present course sets out to do, and, in the opinion of those trained teachers who have conscientiously followed the course for the past four years, it is admirably suited to its purposes.

The course of study takes cognizance of the fact that any subject matter must meet the challenge of modern educational ideas, that it must undertake the development of the whole child using the subject matter as a tool. The New York course definitely aims to emphasize for student and teacher that "Speech training is training in personal and social behavior" and that "improved speech skills are merely the effective tools of the speaker;" that speech education, like all education, must be a factor in "building character, that is, in the establishing of ideals that function unconsciously in human behavior." It recognizes, also, that part of the business of education is the passing on to the student the cultural heritage of the race and a "fortifying of the student for actual demands that are to be made upon him."

## THE COURSE OF STUDY

The first term, therefore, is planned to prepare the mind of the student for speech education. It must be recognized that students come to high school conditioned to the study of history, mathematics, languages, and the other traditional subjects of the curriculum. Speech is, however, a new field for the student, one in which he needs to be oriented. Before the student can be given the improved techniques in speech, he must be mentally and emotionally prepared to receive them. The work of the first term is outlined in the following units of study:

- I. Social, Economic, and Cultural Aspects of Speech.
- II. Voice Education:
  - A. Voice—the revealer
  - B. Poor voice use:
    1. Causes
    2. Effects
    3. Analysis of voice defects of the class
  - C. Good voice use and its effectiveness
- III. The Voice Mechanism:
  - A. The motor power
  - B. The vibrator
  - C. The resonator
  - D. Vocal interferences
- IV. The Science of Speech Sounds—Phonetics:
  - A. The sounds of English
  - B. Common deviations from the standard
- V. English Usage:
  - A. Choice of words
  - B. Relationship of words and word groups
  - C. Pronunciation
- VI. Oral Composition:
  - A. Insistence upon creditable participation in class discussion
  - B. Training pupils to plan and to deliver clear-cut, well-ordered, and interesting talks on suitable topics
  - C. Conditioning pupils to an audience awareness and to a responsibility for audience interest
  - D. Developing in pupils the habit of intelligent and courageous listening
  - E. Developing in pupils a sense of social responsibility
- VII. Oral Interpretation:
  - A. Providing worthy material that is within the range of the student's capacity
  - B. Teaching the technique and providing practice in mental skills involved in getting the central thought of a selection
  - C. Developing the power to evaluate thought relationships
  - D. Guiding students to an appreciation of the mood or feeling, or point of view inherent in a selection
  - E. Training students to associate oral expression with a coincident creative mental state

F. Teaching students the appropriate use of the technique of oral interpretation for the adequate and artistic revealing of thought content and of emotional reaction. This should include a consideration of the following:

1. Timing (rate, pause, duration)
2. Pitch (inflection, intonation)
3. Force (stress, volume, intensity)
4. Voice quality (resonance, pitch)
5. Appropriate speech
6. Bodily expression

The course of study for the second term presupposes, to a degree, that the motivation work of the first term has been successful and that the student is ready to go ahead to an achievement of further skills. The objective of the second term is: "The development of the individual student and of the ability to release personality through effective speaking." The course includes a broader study of language and its significance. The units are:

- I. A Changing Language in a Changing World:
  - A. Brief History of the English language
  - B. The English Language today
- II. Voice and Speech in Relation to Modern Phonetic Standards and Practices:
  - A. Diagnostic testing and recording of the class
  - B. Study of voice and phonetics
  - C. General review of the sounds of English from the standpoint of their auditory, kinaesthetic, and visual values.
    1. Assimilation
    2. Syllabication
    3. Stress and breath groups
    4. Rhythm of English speech
  - D. Diagnosis of faults and remedial measures
  - E. Ear-training
  - F. Training in appreciation and discrimination of the best in the art of the theatre, concert, opera, lecture, motion-picture
  - G. Establishing standards in voice and speech for participation in school activities
  - H. Vocational values of fine voice and speech
    - I. Establishing student responsibility for good voice and speech
    - J. Training the student as auditor
- III. English Usage:
  - A. Correct use of idioms
  - B. Correct grammatical usage
  - C. Avoidance of colloquialisms, vulgar slang, foreignisms, provincialisms
  - D. Choice of words
  - E. Pronunciation
- IV. Oral Composition:
  - A. Preparation for a formal talk
  - B. Techniques of effective delivery
- V. Oral Interpretation
- VI. Dramatic Interpretation

Special and more advanced objectives are set forth for the second term's work in interpretation. These are listed as:

1. To develop in students an understanding and appreciation of "the best thought of the best minds in their best moments," in order that their own minds may be opened, their imaginations led out, and their spirits enriched by experience gained through vital contact with good literature.
2. To develop intelligence, sympathy, and directness through and in reading of verse and prose.
3. To develop the capacity for the enjoyment of reading aloud.
4. To develop a sympathetic understanding of the audience.
5. To develop a control of the outward manifestations of self-consciousness.

Supplementary reading assignments definitely related to the specific work of the course, are provided for both terms. The special objective of the supplementary reading is to train the student in the methods and materials of amplifying his knowledge, and to provide a definite means for correlating his acquisition of speech skills with his recording of his thoughts in the written word.

The entire course of study is planned to provide for a diagnosis of the weaknesses of the individual, for remedial measures to be taken, and for a training of each student to acquire the mental and motor skills of an effective speaker. The student should emerge with a sense of his responsibility to be an intelligent speaker and listener, able, in some measure, to contribute, through effective speech, to the knowledge and development of a group. He should have a sense of confidence in his own ability to carry his part of the burden of a thoughtful and vocal community. The test of the effectiveness of the teaching should be the degree to which there is an actual change in the individual, his reactions and attitudes, his manner, his bearing, and his skill in expressing himself.

### III. THE DES MOINES HIGH-SCHOOL SPEECH COURSE by

E A R L S. K A L P of the *Roosevelt High School, Des Moines*

**T**HE outline presented here is designed to give those interested in speech curriculum problems a brief view of the cardinal features of the *Course of Study in Speech and Dramatics*, Volume I, Des Moines Public Schools. The Des Moines program is founded on definite pupil needs (e.g., the needs of pupils of grade 10A) and it is built throughout to meet the needs.

#### I. The speech needs of the 10A pupils as revealed by a diagnostic survey.

A. Total number of pupils tested, 1372, and the summary of subjective ratings assigned to these pupils by the teachers is: *good*, 265; *only fair*, 804; and *actually poor*, 291.

#### B. The major findings of the survey:

1. Instances of jerky rhythm noted, 362; 26 per cent
2. Instances of oral inactivity noted, 284; 21 per cent
3. Instances of too rapid rate, 164; 12 per cent
4. Incorrect formation of speech sounds. The following indicated sounds are the ones which the 10A pupils form incorrectly most frequently:  
a, as in above and as in caught, 167 instances or 12 per cent

*wh*, as in white, 237 instances or 17 per cent  
*zh*, as in vision, 183 instances or 13 per cent  
*th*, as in this, 93 instances or 7 per cent  
*t*, as in tin, 87 instances or 6 per cent  
*ng*, as in ring, 51 instances or 3 per cent

5. Vocal quality
  - a. Muffled voices, 223; 16 per cent
  - b. Denasal voices, 213; 16 per cent
  - c. Breathy voices, 175; 13 per cent
  - d. Hoarse, husky voices, 154; 11 per cent
  - e. Nasal voices, 109; 8 per cent
6. Vocal control
  - a. Poor flexibility, 250; 18 per cent
  - b. Weak intensity, 200; 14 per cent
7. Emotional inadequacy in a speech situation
  - a. Cases of timidity, 246; 18 per cent
  - b. Cases of indifference, 131; 9 per cent

## II. The course and unit divisions are as follows:

SPEECH I	SPEECH II	SPEECH III	SPEECH IV
Unit I. Introduction to a Speech Course (Discussions about speech)	Unit I. Parliamentary Practice (Involves those parliamentary techniques necessary to organizing a Speech Club)	Unit I. Public Discussion	Unit I. Oral Interpretation of Poetry (Two oral reading situations)
Unit II. Experiences in Classroom Speaking (Five situations for classroom speaking)	Unit II. Panel Discussion (Two situations involving panel discussion)	Unit II. Open Forum Debate	Unit II. Oral Interpretation of Stories (Two story-reading situations)
Unit III. Reading Poetry Aloud (One poetry reading situation)	Unit III. Short Talks (Two speech situations)	Unit III. Radio Speech	Unit III. Oral Reading of Plays (One play reading situation)
Unit IV. Reading Stories Aloud (One story reading situation)	Unit IV. Story telling (One story telling situation)		
Unit V. Check-up on Progress Made (One speech and one oral reading situation for the purpose of integrating the understandings and skills developed in connection with the units)	Unit V. Speeches for Special Occasions		

III. Some of the skills it is hoped will be developed in these situations:

- A. Ability to select subjects and material appropriate to a particular audience and speech situation
- B. Ability to organize material effectively
- C. Ability to use language correctly and effectively
- D. Correct articulation of the consonants and proper enunciation of the vowels
- E. Smooth speech rhythm
- F. Correct pronunciation of words
- G. Pleasing vocal quality
- H. Vocal flexibility
- I. Effective control of bodily action
- J. Ability to project meaning to an audience
- K. Ability to appreciate meaning found in poetry, stories, and plays
- L. Ability to think clearly and co-operatively
- M. Skill in discussion
- N. Ability to listen critically and courteously

IV. A unit pattern:

- A. Objectives of this unit
- B. Subject matter for this unit
  - 1. Speech situations
  - 2. Understandings to be developed in connection with each situation
- C. Suggestions concerning ways in which this unit may be carried forward
  - 1. Activities
    - a. Approach
    - b. Fundamental activities
    - c. Additional enriching activities
  - 2. Teaching suggestions
- D. Desirable outcomes
- E. Sources of material
  - 1. For the pupil
  - 2. For the teacher

V. Some educational concepts that were taken into consideration in the writing of this course of study:

- A. Speech education involves the whole personality of the pupil. A speech mannerism may be a personality trait that deviates from the normal personality.
- B. Speech education is often a problem of developing a wholesome emotional adjustment on the part of the pupil rather than a problem of developing physical habits of the speech mechanism. Elocution training consisting of artificial drills tends to cover up undesirable emotional habits which are in reality symptoms of social maladjustment.
- C. Speech education is a matter of enriching the pupil's experiences. The function of the teacher is to provide interesting, challenging, and worth-while speech situations which will tend to stabilize the pupil emotionally, promote clear thinking, and stimulate the pupil to use his imagination constructively.
- D. Speech situations arising in school and community life should be utilized by the speech student, rather than artificial situations imposed upon from without.



- E. Speech skills are important to the pupil but are developed more effectively when they are incidental to challenging and worth-while speech situations, rather than when they are regarded as the primary object of emphasis.
- F. Since, in our social life today, the principle of co-operation is taking on a new and vital importance, and since effective speech education has much to do with clear thinking, the techniques of co-operative thinking should receive special emphasis in a speech course designed for pupil's present and future social needs.
- G. Speech education should take into consideration the major teachings of the mental hygienists relative to the detrimental effects of tension and a sense of failure on the personality of the pupil. Certainly a speech course of study should tend to omit any of those highly competitive speech activities which place undue strain upon the pupil, or bring him a sense of failure.

#### VI. An experimental course to be called Speech I, C (Speech Correction).

##### A. The need for such a course

1. The diagnosis of speech needs, voice, and voice control, indicate that there are many pupils who have serious speech difficulties that cannot be handled in the regular Speech I sections. These sections present speech situations too difficult for the pupil who feels inferior or who is discouraged and afraid because of his speech handicap. Therefore, it is recommended that there be added to the offerings of the speech department a course which would be known as Speech IC, the purpose of which would be to meet the special needs of those pupils who have special speech problems and to give them as much of the regular Speech I course as they can do with profit.

##### B. The proposed course might include the following named activities:

1. Making a careful study of the speech and personality background of the pupil by the teacher
2. Placing in the hands of the pupils who need it, mental hygiene handbooks to guide them in a better understanding of themselves
3. Giving of brief inspirational talks by the teacher on problems common to a majority of the group such as:
  - a. Overcoming fear
  - b. Relaxation and recreation
  - c. Healthful living (rest, diet, exercise)
  - d. Development of courage
  - e. Self-confidence and self-respect
4. Carrying on informal discussion of problems common to the majority of pupils and teachers. (This in itself is likely to be a very valuable speech situation for those with defects.)
5. Providing individual practice on needed speech and voice exercises
6. Making records of each pupil's speech at the beginning and at the end of the course for the purpose of providing motivation for work and as a means of checking up on progress made
7. Helping pupils to prepare and give reports in history classes or oral readings in English classes
8. Carrying on as much of the Speech I work as possible in conjunction with or following corrective procedures.



## CHAPTER XIII

### Speech Programs in Small High Schools

- I. PRINCIPLES FOR THE SPEECH PROGRAM IN THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL by  
J. DALE WELSCH of *Coe College*

- T**HE purpose of this discussion of speech for the small high school is three-fold: to summarize the conditions now existing, to present some examples of what is being accomplished, and to suggest to principals of small high schools how they can effect an improvement. An attempt will be made to explain four characteristics of the speech program in the small high school:
- curriculum, teacher qualifications, activities, and equipment.

#### THE SPEECH CURRICULUM

The speech curriculums of the small high schools throughout our country include quite a variety of types; from no program whatsoever to programs with many types of educational activity. Some of the approaches to speech education made in these programs include the study of evaluative human relations, speech as a skill and technique, speech as a communicative tool, and speech as a means of personality development. The study of evaluative human relations has received renewed emphasis from the methods of general semantics in which speech is considered as the oral use of language through which man endeavors to solve his problems and to manage his reactions in a changing environment. The study of speech as a skill and technique is not particularly a modernized conception of speech education. It assumes that certain drills pertaining to voice, posture, and language usage will bring about the acquisition of speech ability. The study of speech as a communicative tool stresses the social values of speech among men and its proponents believe that speech is the tool by which man controls his environment. The study of speech as personality development involves methods similar to those used in evaluative human relations with a focus upon the effect of speech upon the individual himself. These types are activated by the following formats: special competitive speech contests; oral English as a part of the regular English courses prescribed by a text; speech classes known as dramatics or public speaking of one year or one semester in length; a course in general education or communication with speech arts as its core; a correlated, integrated, or fused course in reading, writing, speaking, and listening; and speech units as a part of the work in English.

Examples of all of these may be found in America, although there are far too many secondary schools with little or no speech education except in some form of speech contest. Probably the most interesting types of curriculums can be listed as "evaluative human relations" and "personality development." The favored forms of expressing these at present may be named as the core curriculum, the integrated curriculum, and the unit curriculum.

Since the integrated and core conceptions have been explained in another chapter of this publication as well as in other educational magazines, a short description will be given only of the unit plan. A tabulated outline of the unit procedure of nine weeks is shown in Table I below.

TABLE I. UNIT PROCEDURE

<i>Grade Level</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>Speech Arts</i>	<i>Labels for Speech Arts</i>
7	Two English periods of nine weeks each	Two speech periods nine weeks each during the year.	1 unit Group Reading
8			1 unit Class Discussion and Parliamentary Drill
9			1 unit Short Talks and Oral Reports
10			1 unit Individual Reading
11			2 units Assembly, Debate, and Panel Discussion
12			2 units Dramatics, Acting, and Production

Remedial speech is managed throughout the six years as a special task. Speech arts activities form part of this program.

Some schools are promoting a program quite similar to that above, but covering speech activities only one or two days per week during the regular English classes. This arrangement is presented in Table II on the next page.

Both of the unit systems are quite flexible and in some instances seem to be combined with a course in communications including reading, writing, speaking, and listening. In some high schools a teacher with a double major in speech and English has charge while in others an English instructor handles the English portions and a speech instructor directs the speech units in all grades.

In addition to adopting a particular curriculum for his school the principal should make certain that the curriculum possesses a sufficient number of speech experiences to meet the needs of an adequate training program. Too much emphasis on one type of the speech activity such as debate or dramatics achieves only a one-sided speech education. It can be maintained that a well-thought-out program, under a competent teacher, available to all students, having practical objectives and providing speech learning

TABLE II SPEECH INTEGRATED WITH ENGLISH

Grade Level	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
7	Literature	English Correctness And Spelling	Speech	Oral and Written Composition	
8	Literature	English Correctness And Spelling	Speech	Oral and Written Composition	
9	Literature	Grammar	Speech	Oral and Written Composition	
10	Literature	Grammar	Speech	Oral and Written Composition	
11	Literature		Speech	Oral and Written Com.	
12	Literature		Speech	Oral and Written Com.	
Remedial speech and speech arts activities parallel this plan.					

situations which help the individual student in his present environment, are the primary goals of a speech program in the small high school.

#### TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS

This brings us to the next point. The training of the teacher is of paramount significance. It may mean the success or failure of the best-planned curriculum. In the small secondary schools of America we still find many ill-prepared or inadequately educated teachers dabbling in the speech arts. Too many English teachers in these high schools are trying to present a program in speech education for which they have insufficient preparation. Too many high schools are attempting a speech program with teachers who have had no speech training. Too many high schools have teachers who only have had specialized training in one type of speech activity such as forensics, declamation, or dramatics. This necessarily results in an unbalanced program which may be as ineffective in some respects as none at all. Balance is necessary. Research studies carried out in speech research centers indicate a significant correlation between personality development and a well-rounded education in the speech arts.

For the benefit of the principal in his selection of a teacher for speech arts it would be wise to show what kind of training he should demand of teachers he selects. Studies of the University of Iowa show that there are few teachers of speech arts only in the small high school. Usually the teaching load comprises a combination of subjects with the following fields pre-

dominating: English, social studies, and speech. This means that the speech teacher must be prepared for both English and speech, social studies and speech, or all three. A number of educational institutions for the past several years have been able to accomplish this task quite easily and still provide for the broad liberal arts or general education so necessary for the future teacher.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals is being encouraged to request higher educational institutions to furnish these teachers. Not only do some colleges and universities fail in this respect but they also permit the specialized major at the undergraduate level, such as a major in dramatics, correction, or radio only to seek positions in the general speech field. It is our contention that the speech teacher for the small high school (since a large proportion of these schools can employ but one such teacher) should be well-grounded in the entire field of speech vital to the curriculum of the small high school. Specialization should be reserved at least for work in the graduate school.

What are some of the divisions of a systematically organized speech program which should be included in the education of the speech teacher? The minimum requirements should be: public speaking, reading, discussion, history of speech, dramatic production, acting, direction, elementary speech science, the fundamental principles of speech correction and clinical procedure, methods and practice teaching, and radio speech and drama. Many colleges now provide a speech major with courses similar to that outlined in Table III below.

TABLE III. A SPEECH MAJOR BY SEMESTERS

<i>First Semester</i>		<i>Second Semester</i>	
<i>Course Name</i>	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Course Name</i>	<i>Hours</i>
<i>Freshmen</i>			
Speech Fundamentals .....	2	Speech Fundamentals .....	2
<i>Sophomores</i>			
Dramatic Production .....	3	Reading .....	3
<i>Juniors</i>			
Original Speech and Discussion .....	3	Acting .....	3
Radio Speech and Drama .....	3	Speech Science and Pathology .....	3
<i>Seniors</i>			
Clinical Practice .....	2	Clinical Practice .....	2
Play Directing .....	2	Speech Problems .....	2
Stage Design .....	2	History of Speech Arts .....	2

Along with these courses the speech major is required to participate in some part of four speech activity groups either in competition or community enterprise: the theatre; group speaking such as assembly, discussion, or debate; individual speaking; and reading or interpretation.

Finally, there is another source of weakness in teacher training programs of certain institutions of high learning, particularly in some state teacher colleges, whose primary task is one of adequate and effective teacher education. A number of these colleges place the preparation of the speech teacher in the guiding hands of the English department. This usually means English in the form of composition and literature will come first and any speech education second. It often means also that speech courses may be left entirely out of departmental offerings. It leads to the ultimate domination of one branch of higher education over another. In too many instances it results in poor development of educational leadership.

What then can the high-school principal do? There are several things of importance. *First*, the principal can determine that his speech teacher shall be one who is fully qualified in the entire field of speech vital to the school. *Second*, he can demand of the colleges and universities that the teachers he employs be given the educational training they need.

#### ACTIVITIES

The next factor to be considered concerns the choice of speech activities in the small high school. These activities should cover the fields of individual speaking, discussion, plays, reading, community speaking, speech, clubs, and radio. There may be three basic principles involved in the selection of such activities. These may be listed as a well-balanced number of different activities to meet the needs of all pupils, control of competition to the extent that speech experiences will be provided for all students, and freedom to use the money obtained from speech functions to develop a speech program. As yet there are too many high schools with an overloaded schedule of either debates, plays, or declamatory contests; too many speech activities are not presented to those students who need speech education to the greatest degree; and far too many who use the proceeds of public appearances in the speech program for purchasing basketball uniforms or for the junior-senior banquet budget.

It can be said that the principal or the superintendent of schools can be held definitely responsible for any distorting of the philosophy of speech education. It may never be corrected until administrators evaluate the activity program in terms of the individual student and decide what should be educationally important for the small high school.

#### EQUIPMENT

The final factor for examination is that of equipment. The term "equipment" can be narrowed arbitrarily to include these elements: the physical plant, remedial material, library resources, activity aids, and instructional helps. It would be difficult to arrange any minimum list as situations vary from community to community. One can, however, point to some outstanding mistakes among American high schools which should not be repeated. The



first can be indicated as the plan for use of the building in which speech students, drama classes or clubs, musical organizations, and physical education teams try to use the auditorium stage during the tremendously busy weeks throughout the school year. A large room fitted for speech classes and rehearsals, another room sound-proofed for music, and a separate gymnasium would present sufficient physical provisions without much added cost. This instructional chaos can be averted if the building plan is prepared by experienced educators in speech. Other mistakes in selecting equipment should be mentioned for the sake of record. They include: the stock ceiling strip-lights of the average stage, the over-abundant foot-lights, the dearth of dimmers, the absence of library sources for the creative activities in speech, the barren, unattractive speech classroom without any semblance of a stage, the lack of test and practice material for speech correction, and the need for illustrative devices such as charts and models. It would seem feasible to suggest that the educational administrator should obtain the services of an adequately prepared speech teacher from the nearest college speech department to make a survey of the speech equipment needs of his school. After such a survey every attempt should be made to establish the necessary equipment and physical facilities to meet the needs of students as rapidly as the budget will permit.

II. THE SPEECH CURRICULUM IN WEBSTER, SOUTH DAKOTA, HIGH SCHOOL  
by CLARA T. CHILSON

**T**HE premise upon which any discussion of the place of speech in a small town high school is based is that speech as a classroom subject is a fundamental necessity. The activities should stem from the classroom because the lasting fundamentals cannot be well-taught in extracurriculum time. The emphasis outside of school is always on speech facility for specific situations. The criticism is superficial, geared to meet a passing occasion, and it does not touch underlying weaknesses. It does not arise from a broad background which the student has acquired over a period of several weeks in a classroom.

Our fundamental course is a one-semester course. Its objectives constantly before the students approximate the following:

1. Establish standards by which to judge adequate speech.
2. Acquire some degree of ease and poise before an audience.
3. Practice free bodily movement and freedom of gesture to express ideas.
4. Strive for communicativeness.
5. Develop ability to investigate a subject and find suitable material for a speech.
6. Drill to achieve reasonably adequate control of the vocal mechanism.
7. Learn to outline a subject.
8. Practice until you can read the written word with oral skill.
9. Honestly wrestle with an idea and earnestly want to put that idea across to the audience.
10. Accept responsibility as a member of an audience.

Every teacher will prefer to phrase these objectives in his own way but some similar list will give point, direction, and cohesion to the teaching and will remind the teacher daily of the job to be done. Extempore talks, use of the vocal mechanism, and outlining must be taught early. But whatever the procedure, the students must be on their feet, speaking before the first week has elapsed. To postpone this hurdle is only to increase its size. To put off this assignment will only magnify the horrid awe with which some students anticipate the first audience situation.

What must we include in the basic course? All the specialized material that will best promote the objectives listed above. It is important to depend on a good text, of which many are listed in the selected bibliography presented at the end of this publication.

The bare minimum, then, in any high school, is a semester of *Basic Speech*. All students should be required to take it in the second semester of the sophomore year, or the first semester of the junior year.

Two more courses are included as electives. The first is *Basic Debate* in which all the techniques of *discussion* and *debate* are fully explored. If school time can be used for debate class it enlarges the field of choice of activities and youngsters who have after-school jobs can receive instruction in formal public speaking.

The third course is *Dramatics*. When the plays are coached wholly on an extracurriculum basis there is little time to teach anything except the mechanics of a particular play. When taught as a course in school, the rudiments of stagecraft, directing, acting, and a study of the finer plays, give play directing permanent importance. Students with talent in acting get a chance to discover their abilities and all students get to do what is the desire of even the brawniest football strong men, namely, *to be in a play*, even if it is only for class, or assembly, or is a student-written one-act play for a dramatic club. As a result, the class plays have the support of enthusiastic student backers to whom the stage crew has the same importance as an actual role.

Any high school can make room for this program. The writer taught on this basis and she knows that results are limited only by the vigor of the teacher. There is no more gratifying experience nor one more closely related to the ideal experience curriculum than high-school classwork in speech.

### III. SPEECH ACTIVITIES IN DUQUOIN, ILLINOIS, HIGH SCHOOL by

R. P. HIBBS

**W**HEN one teaches in a mining community of 7200, in a thirty-nine year old building with only 425 students, he may find an interesting challenge to his teaching effort. Because there is little enticement to overcome difficulties, accomplishment is doubly pleasant. Even with a background of this kind, a high school may achieve substantial results with a well-organized course program of speech education. One measuring stick for the evaluation

of our program is what our students have done in competitive activities. They have received superior ratings in 135 out of 183 sectional, state, interstate, and national interscholastic tournaments. Of course there are other schools which have similar records of which they are proud. Not that these achievements are noteworthy as victories, but we think they are important indices of the facts that splendid equipment and cultural backgrounds of the pupils are not imperatives for the development of meritorious performances in the field of speech.

Technical equipment at the school is limited, indeed. A recorder is available but little used because we have not found it of great value, as we use it, in improving speech patterns. The department has accumulated divers recordings, which are played on its two portable radio-phonographs. Among these recordings are the *Seashore Measure of Musical Talent*, which are administered to all beginning speech students to detect possible weaknesses in discriminating pitch, sound patterns, or rhythm. A public address system doubles for practice in radio production. A model of the speech mechanism and some anatomical charts of the parts of the body concerned with vocal utterance comprise, except for the printed materials, the physical assets of the department.

In this connection, no expense is spared to collect the best and most modern materials on speech making which can be found. Regular subscriptions to speech and dramatic magazines, large numbers of plays radio sketches, poetry, orations, cuttings from literature, technical books and textbooks, and all other worth-while materials bearing on the subjects for speech are obtained regularly. Debate materials are purchased in whatever quantities may be needed.

The classroom is lacking in platform space but not in atmosphere. Its walls are covered with framed pictures of speech students of former years and of individuals who have personally distinguished themselves in speech activities. These pictures of speech activities during the years are designed to emphasize the traditions which the new students are inheriting. Excellent use is made, as a motivating device, of two complete transcriptions of some of our speech programs broadcast over national hook-ups.

Our stage and stage equipment are poor, the former being much too shallow and too low in ceiling. Acoustical defects in the otherwise good auditorium complicate production. Lighting and scenery are inadequate yet the speech department gives one full-length play of good quality each year. Last year's production was *Death Takes a Holiday*, a splendidly done and well received play. Two regularly scheduled classes in speech are offered each year, one being a course for beginners and the other an advanced course stressing a different aspect of speech each year so that it may be taken for credit more than once. The varied interscholastic and intramural programs are carried extracurricularly.

## CHAPTER XIV

### Evaluation in Speech Education

#### I. TESTING SPEECH PERFORMANCE by

ALAN H. MONROE of *Purdue University*

**A**CCURATE testing of pupils' achievement in any course of study is by no means a substitute for good instruction and a well-planned curriculum. Without proper evaluation of pupils' efforts, however, it is hard to determine whether instruction is effective and whether the curriculum is producing the results anticipated from it. All too often, hazy testing methods parallel or serve to conceal hazy objectives and sloppy teaching.

#### THE PURPOSES OF TESTING IN SPEECH

There are, roughly, two purposes for which speech tests may be given: for *evaluation* and for *diagnosis*. The former is more important in such matters as determining pupils' grades, measuring the over-all achievement of a class, comparing the results of different methods of instruction, or assessing the value of extended *versus* short periods of training. The diagnostic use of testing is analytical in purpose. It attempts to isolate particular weaknesses (such as vocal monotony, poor articulation, emotional instability, or superficial thinking) in order to concentrate instruction on those things which are most needed by the individual pupil or class. Little good comes from merely evaluating the speech performance, let us say, of a pupil who stutters badly or who has a very high-pitched nasal voice. Diagnostic testing to determine the nature of such speech defects so that proper re-training procedures can be employed is far more useful than determining how bad the defect is. Likewise, in large schools where sectioning is possible, diagnostic testing may be used to segregate groups needing greater emphasis on certain phases of training (such as foreign dialect). This difference in purpose between evaluation and diagnosis is important because some testing methods adequate for one purpose are invalid or inaccurate for the other.

#### DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED IN TESTING SPEECH

No particular difficulty is encountered in testing pupils' *knowledge* about speech. The subject matter of speech textbooks or of information presented by the teacher is essentially no different in nature from any other subject matter. The usual methods for testing comprehension, retention, and grasp of relationships can be used here just as well as in mathematics, chemistry, history, or literature. The difficulty arises when one attempts to test speech *performance*. Since speech training aims primarily at developing the pupil's skill in its use rather than a mere textbook knowledge about it, the testing of speech performance, therefore, constitutes the major problem.

The difficulty in testing speech performance lies primarily in the complexity of the speech act itself. There are, of course, those who object to the use of devices such as rating scales, questionnaires, evaluation ballots, and the like because these methods are indirect; that is, they test someone else's reaction to the speech act rather than measuring the performance itself. This objection in itself is inconclusive. One could equally well object to measuring temperature by means of a thermometer since one bases his conclusion on the height of a column of mercury and not upon the heat itself. Scientists have long realized that direct testing or measurement is unnecessary providing a valid and reliable indirect method is available. All that one needs to know is that the height of the mercury varies in direct proportion to the heat and that this variation is consistent from day to day. If the speech performance were as simple a phenomenon as temperature change, no serious difficulty would be present in testing it.

Speech, however, is not a simple phenomenon. The number of variables involved is very great. The voice itself is only a small part of the total speech act yet it alone varies in pitch, loudness, timbre, and in the pattern with which these variables change. No two voices are alike any more than are two sets of fingerprints. Add to this the complexity of the visible behavior of the speaker, his posture, his facial expression, the way he moves about, what he does with his hands, what sort of clothes he wears, and the picture becomes more complex. Nor is this all. The use of language is an important variable, including such things as grammar, choice of words, variety of sentence structure, vocabulary, and the like. In addition, the background of knowledge and experience and the specific understanding of a particular subject seriously affect the speaker's performance, as do the emotional maturity and control which he possesses. These are but a few of the many variables which go to make up the complex performance which we call speaking. Yet all of these variables are present at one time and affect the phenomenon to be tested.

For diagnostic testing this complexity makes more difficult the task of isolating specific variables. It is difficult, for instance, to separate the speaker's control of vocal pitch and loudness since these two variables often occur together; that is, one tends to raise his pitch as he talks louder. Nor is it always possible to determine whether excessive hesitancy arises from poor vocabulary, emotional tension, insufficient knowledge, or all three. The overlapping influence of the many variables in speech performance thus makes their isolation for the purpose of diagnostic testing difficult.

On the other hand, while evaluative testing can be done in terms of "general effectiveness" or the total effect of the performance, the reliability and validity of such evaluation has been found to increase when it is based upon the summation of measurements of separate variables. The derivation of appropriate weights for these variables in the process of summation, however, is somewhat difficult. It is not possible to say, for example, that voice is twice

as important as visible behavior and should be given twice its weight. For one speaker this might be true, whereas for another speaker or in another situation it might be completely false. The excellence of an individual in **some one variable may be so great as to outweigh or conceal even completely** a weakness in several other variables. Weightings of this sort, therefore, while they can be adequately determined for group measurements, may be extremely false when applied to individual speakers.

The difficulties so far listed result from the complexity of a speech performance in the speaker himself, but the actual speech phenomenon involves more than just the speaker; the audience listening to him and the physical conditions under which he speaks are also involved. What might be a good speech at a football rally would not be appropriate at a dedication ceremony. Audiences differ in age, intelligence, prejudices, and many other things. Since the purpose of speech performances whether conversation, public speaking, or dramatic, is always communication, a proper evaluation or diagnosis must include consideration of the listener as well as the speaker. Thus an entire new set of variables is introduced into the complex which is to be tested. The problem becomes increasingly difficult when, as in the case of rating scales and attitude questionnaires, the listener's reaction is made the index for measuring the speaker's effectiveness. Such procedure is, of course, theoretically the most valid since the ultimate test of the speaker's effectiveness is the information he imparts to the listener or the change of attitude he produces in that listener. Great care must be exercised in the use of this method of testing, however, since the measuring device itself contains so many variables in addition to the thing being measured.

One further difficulty in testing speech deserves comment. The very procedure of testing speech performance to some degree destroys the normal conditions under which the phenomenon takes place. When a speaker, for instance, talks before an audience supplied with rating scales and pencils, he is aware that he is going to be rated and the audience, to some degree at least, is concentrating upon the rating of the speaker; thus the situation becomes to some extent artificial. Even more difficulty is encountered when laboratory techniques are employed for test purposes. A pupil talking into a microphone for the purpose of making a phonograph record is performing a different act than he is when standing before an audience which reacts to what he says. The breathing of a speaker whose chest and abdomen are encircled by pneumographs may be somewhat different from what that breathing would be without the restrictions placed upon him. This does not mean that such testing is not useful. On the contrary, many very important facts have been discovered in this way. It does mean, however, that the results of such tests must constantly be scrutinized for distortion resulting from the conditions under which the tests were given and great care must be exercised in assuming that the



results obtained in the laboratory will occur in exactly the same fashion by speakers in actual speech situations.

The above discussion of difficulties which confront anyone attempting to test speech performances accurately indicates why administrators should be cautious in jumping to conclusions based on the results of such tests. Care must always be taken to avoid over-interpretation of the data received from them, particularly in the application of such tests to individual pupils. Nevertheless, the existence of these difficulties does not mean that they cannot be surmounted. During the past fifteen years a great deal of work has been done by scholars in education and in the speech profession to overcome these difficulties and to provide simple and practical methods of speech testing. No one is more conscious of the difficulties than the scholar who has been working on this very problem and while he is the last to presume perfection in the methods devised, there can be little doubt that very real progress has been made in developing a sound testing program.

#### METHODS OF TESTING SPEECH

The actual methods which may be used for testing speech performances are many and varied. No complete discussion of them is possible in the space here available. In fact, a mere list of the available testing devices and procedures would constitute a major article in itself. An excellent abstract of these methods has recently been prepared by Dr. Howard Gilkinson.<sup>1</sup> It is possible, however, to present a brief discussion of the major types of tests and to suggest some limitations in them.

##### 1. *Simple Judgment*

The most common method of evaluating and of diagnosing speech performance is the simple judgment of the listener. Anyone sitting in an audience makes such a judgment whether he expresses it or not. He "says to himself" that the speaker was good or bad, that he was right or wrong, that he was sincere, energetic, timid, or that he had an unpleasant voice. Individual judgment of this sort made by untrained observers will naturally be very unreliable and reflect the tastes and prejudices of the listener himself. However, the summation of such judgments by large numbers of listeners tends to eliminate the effect of individual bias and presents a fairly sound evaluated measure.

The same method is commonly used by the teacher in the classroom. Student performance is evaluated and diagnosed by the teacher. *To the extent that the teacher is well trained in the analysis of speech performance and is judicious in temperament, such judgments are reasonably sound.* Experimental work has shown, for example, that college teachers of elementary public speaking make judgments having far more statistical reliability than the judgments of teachers of English composition grading themes, or of history teachers

<sup>1</sup>Gilkinson, Howard, "Experimental and Statistical Research in General Speech." *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXX, 1944. Pp. 95-101, 180-186.



grading essay-type examinations. Evaluations made by the trained speech teacher of a *series* of performances covering the work of a school term may be accepted as a fairly accurate judgment of the performance of that pupil, at least as sound as the judgment of a teacher in any other subject field based on similar criteria. Throughout the term any teacher of speech worth his salt constantly makes diagnostic judgments in the attempt to identify weak aspects of his pupils' performance and to provide special help in overcoming those weaknesses. This combination of diagnosis and evaluation is the most valuable part of the speech teacher's job. It cannot be done satisfactorily by untrained teachers nor can it be done with certainty or skill by those who are excellent teachers of other subjects who have had no special training or experience in speech analysis.

## 2. *Controlled Judgment*

Simple judgments of the type just described may be made more analytical and systematic by the use of rating scales, check lists, and standardized testing material (such as articulation tests consisting of key words). Devices of this sort tend to force the observer to focus attention on the particular phases of speech contained in the scale or test and to require him to observe all of the items covered. In this way the observer's tendency to concentrate upon his own "pet items" is somewhat overcome.

Two samples will indicate the type of test here considered. The first is a rating scale devised by A. I. Bryan and W. H. Wilke.<sup>2</sup> This scale contains items such as the following:

5. How would you describe the speaker's flow of words?  
 Fluent                      Easy                      Unimpeded                      Hesitant                      Labored
6. To what extent does the speaker possess self-control?  
 Well-poised                      Comfortable                      Controlled                      Uneasy                      Upset

Several similar rating scales have been devised. Another type of test in this category is that which deals with a specific phase of speech performance such as articulation. Most articulation tests contain lists of words and phrases which the pupil is asked to read while the observer notes the sounds upon which difficulty is encountered. The following sample indicates the type of material contained in such tests:

1	2	3	4
a. Which	a. Gum	a. Mother	a. Post
b. Witch	b. Come	b. Mudder	b. Posed
c. Wish	c. Gun	c. Mutter	c. Boast

The value and limitations of such devices were clearly stated in a recent article by Dr. Franklin H. Knower:<sup>3</sup>

There is no evidence that experienced observers improve their evaluations by use of such scales. They serve such purposes as a guide for the training of inexperienced observers, a

<sup>2</sup>Published by The Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y. 1939.

<sup>3</sup>Knower, Franklin H. "What Is a Speech Test?" *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Vol. XXX, 1944. Pp. 485-493.

convenient form for recording judgments, and a record of the observational evaluation rendered. They also provide a useful means of studying evaluational judgment and analyzing speech performance. Much of the criticism against such scales as evaluational instruments,\* as we shall explain later, should be more properly directed against the process of rating by the person using the scales. It is essential that the rater thoroughly familiarize himself with any scale before attempting to use it in test situations. If the scale is to work well, the rater must use it easily. If he cannot do this, the accuracy of recorded evaluation is bound to suffer.

To enable the rater to use a scale conveniently it should not contain too many items. The total number of items will depend upon the length of the observation. Moreover, terms used in the scale must be precise and meaningful to the observer. The rater should not attempt to discriminate more than five to seven degrees of difference in traits rated. The attempt to discriminate finer degrees of difference results in a false sense of refinement in the process of observational evaluation.

Graphic scales permit the drawing of speech profiles. Check lists are seldom used to provide numerical records of performance. The rater checks the item if it is to him significant, and omits the check if it is not pertinent. The publication of norms for a rating scale adds little to the usefulness of the scale as such.

The objectivity of observational evaluation is entirely a matter of the objectivity of raters. Although the standards of evaluation in this process are ostensibly subjective, it remains a fact that such judgments may be accurate or even more accurate than an arbitrarily assigned score derived from items on an objective paper-and-pencil test. The conscientious rater will remain constantly alert to factors that influence the quality of his judgments and make every effort to exercise them with care. The *halo effect* in rating involves the tendency to generalize about speech achievement as a whole in terms of the critic's reaction to one or more of its factors. This tendency, when ratings are used merely for general evaluation, is not wholly to be deprecated. Since listeners ordinarily react to a speech performance as a whole, the critic should not always studiously avoid the influence of the halo. However, if ratings are to be diagnostic, then the best of discriminative judgment is needed.

Ratings on the average tend to fall above a theoretical average, although there are marked differences among raters in the central tendency of their ratings to be above the mean. Raters also differ in the range of their scores, although there is a general tendency to avoid use of the extremes on a scale. There is also a danger, in observational evaluation, that optimism or pessimism will cause the finding of achievement, or lack of it, because one looks for it or would like to find it. Some studies of comparative method in teaching where observational evaluation had been used have not guarded against this source of error.

### 3. Audience Tests

In a sense the use of rating scales and check lists described above constitutes a test based on the reaction of one or more listeners. In all of them, however, the listener was expressing a judgment about the speaker or about some phase of his speaking ability. A different type of testing occurs when the listener himself is tested for the effect made on him by the speaker. For this purpose attitude scales such as those devised by Thurstone may be used to determine the attitude of an audience before and after listening to a speech. By this means the speaker's effectiveness may be judged in terms of his ability to change the attitude of his audience. A similar though perhaps less accurate device of this kind makes use of the opinion ballot

(somewhat on the order of the type of questions used in the various public opinion polls). Similarly, an audience may be tested for its *knowledge* of certain subject matter before and after listening to a speaker and the increase in knowledge shown by the difference in the results of the two tests may be used to measure the speaker's effectiveness in conveying information. Other devices which use audience reaction to determine the effectiveness of speech performance include such things as counting the number of laughs evoked by a humorous talk or play and the use of a sound-level meter (sometimes called "applause meter").

This type of measurement requires very careful equating of audiences since one audience may, for example, laugh more at the same humorous comment than another. Moreover, the use of attitude scales or comprehensive tests is somewhat cumbersome and requires fairly large audiences for accurate results. A good deal of sophistication in the use of complex testing procedures is required of the person using this method if spurious results are to be avoided. The statistical treatment of the results obtained by these methods requires at least a basic knowledge of statistical method. This is probably the most valid method for use in research but it is difficult to apply in practical classroom situations.

#### 4. *Instrumented Tests*

The use of sound recording on phonograph records, magnetized wire, or sound film provides another type of testing procedure. These records of *speakers' performance* may then be subjected to any one of the three preceding types of tests under standardized listening conditions several times. In this manner greater reliability of judgments or of audience response may be obtained. It must be remembered, however, that what increase there is in reliability is accompanied by a decrease in validity since what is being evaluated under these circumstances is not a complete and realistic reproduction of speech but only certain remains of it. The method is valuable for certain types of research but is no substitute for the other methods of testing. There are, of course, certain types of instrumented tests which are important in the diagnosis of special speech disabilities. Audiometric tests may be used to discover hearing deficiency in pupils which may affect their vocal production. Similarly, breathing records and tests showing pitch and intensity patterns are important in the diagnosis of speech defects. Certain types of recording, moreover, may be used for teaching rather than testing purposes with competent critical comments by the teacher. Students often learn a great deal from hearing recordings of their own speech or seeing motion picture films of their own preference. Merely listening to such recordings or viewing them without the advice of competent teachers, however, has been shown to have limited value. On the whole, instrumented testing is of primary value when used for individual pupils with special

difficulties or for research rather than in the normal testing procedures related to the basic program of instruction.

#### 5. *Subjective Reports*

Some use has been made of standardized tests which call for reports by the speaker on his own knowledge, experience, background, or his feelings while delivering a speech. Tests of emotional stability, personality tests, so-called intelligence tests, case-history questionnaires, and the like fall in this category. To the extent that such tests have been proved valid and reliable, they are useful in providing background information about pupils who study speech. Comparisons between speech performance and scores on such tests provide interesting research material and are often useful in individual cases for diagnostic purposes. Teachers of speech have found in the results of such tests illuminating explanation of some types of difficulty encountered by their students. The relationship between the characteristics disclosed by such tests and the speech abilities of high-school pupils is still a subject for careful research, however, and the use of such test results for predicting success or failure in speech courses is still doubtful. Such tests, of course, are in no sense really tests of speech performance but they do serve to provide correlative information about pupil speakers.

#### 6. *Subject-Matter Tests*

As previously noted, pupils may be tested on their knowledge of speech methods and procedures in the same manner that they are tested in other courses of study. Here the commonly known strength and weakness of the "objective" (true-false, multiple choice, fill-in, or matching) tests, and essay type tests exist to the same extent as elsewhere. Similarly, the use of the oral quiz and recitation does not differ in value from their use in other subjects. Some teachers, however, employ oral testing of this sort as further practice in speech performance for their pupils and judge the *manner* in which this oral work is performed as well as the *content* of what is said. It is generally accepted that since the ability to perform in speech is more important than knowledge about it, tests of performance of whatever kind used should be given more weight in determining course grades than is given to subject-matter tests. The actual weight attached to performances and to knowledge of speech theory will vary with the specific nature of the speech course offered and with the objectives of the teacher and his administration. As a general rule, in beginning speech courses performance is weighted at least twice as heavily as knowledge of theory. (By performance is meant, of course, not merely delivery but the substance of the speech as delivered.)

#### CONCLUSIONS

- In summary it may be said that the testing of speech performance is difficult because of the complex nature of the speech act itself. Such testing can be done, however, with reasonable accuracy both for evaluation and diagnostic purposes. Certain types of tests are more valuable for evaluation and others

are more useful in diagnosis. Many of the more refined methods of testing, although more accurate, are also more cumbersome and some require special training in statistical analysis and application; these are chiefly useful for research or for particularized use with pupils having speech defects. For the day-by-day evaluation and diagnosis of the speech performance of pupils in the classroom the simplest and most effective method of testing is the judgment of the *trained* speech teacher. Such judgments may be standardized and made more analytical by the use of controlled devices of the type mentioned in (2) above. Such controls are indispensable when teachers inadequately trained in speech are required (for administrative reasons) to assist in the speech program. They are helpful tools even for the best-trained and most-experienced teacher. Instrumented testing is not necessary for effective evaluation or diagnosis at the classroom level but is an important asset to the teaching program and is a necessary basis for accurate diagnosis of some types of speech difficulty.

## II. EVALUATING A HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAM by

FRANKLIN H. KNOWER of *State University of Iowa* and

KARL F. ROBINSON of *Northwestern University*

**W**HAT is a good program for speech education in the Secondary School? There are many ways in which this question might be answered. One of the most convenient ways appears to involve an inventory of the qualities which characterize the programs in schools which have consistently produced results. Such an inventory, with directions for its use, is suggested below.

The inventory may be used for at least three different purposes. The teacher may check his own program by it and perhaps thus derive suggestions from it. The program may be checked by teachers and school administrators and suggestions be secured for the co-operative development of the program. The administrator or research scholar who wants an objective, quantitative rating on programs of speech education may secure the service of an expert who will find the scale a guide to his evaluation and a means of recording his findings. The ratings on the separate items of the inventory may be added to provide a rating score for the program as a whole. If a large percentage of the items is checked in the "2" column, the program may be considered an "A Program." If most of the items are checked in the "1" column, the program may be considered a "B Program." If most of the checks appear in the "0" column, the program should be considered a "C Program." Needless to say, the validity of ratings will depend upon the qualifications of the rater and upon how familiar he is with the program evaluated.

Two forms of the scale are presented. Form A is primarily for school systems of moderate to large size and includes all items in the scale. First-class speech programs in small school systems can be evaluated on Form A. Most schools (small) may be better evaluated on Form B, consisting only of starred items.

## A GENERAL SPEECH PROGRAM INVENTORY

## FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

## Form A

Form B consists of the items with starred numbers

1. School size ..... 2. School type (public, vocational, general, three-year senior, etc.) .....
3. Courses, individual or clinic programs offered (*underline any required, and follow all by number of students in each last year.*) .....
4. Number of students in co-curriculum activity programs: oral reading ( ), dramatics ( ), public speaking ( ), other activities .....
5. Do you follow a curriculum prepared by your state ( ), your city system ( ), your own planning ( ), other as explained .....
6. Indicate the background in speech education of the person checking this inventory. ....

This inventory is designed as a check test of secondary-school speech programs. Read the following list of items and check the key for each item to indicate the extent to which your program meets the criterion suggested.

- o. Encircle the number "o" if your school program meets the criterion *very inadequately or not at all.*
  1. Encircle the number "1" if your school program meets the criterion *moderately well.*
  2. Encircle the number "2" if your school program meets the criterion *very successfully.*
- 1\* Is speech instruction made conveniently available to all students? ..... 0-1-2
  - 2\* Is speech instruction adapted to individual needs and abilities in various courses and activities? ..... 0-1-2
  - 3 Does your school have a graduated and continuous program of instruction available to students in all grades? ..... 0-1-2
  - 4\* Does your speech program co-ordinate the work done in high school with the work which has been done in the grades and which may be done by those who go to college? ..... 0-1-2
  - 5\* Do you make an effort in speech instruction to give students a clear picture of aims and objectives in speech instruction? ..... 0-1-2
  - 6 Are your objectives validated in terms of the achievement of a good program of speech education? ..... 0-1-2
  - 7\* Do you attempt to guide students toward an appreciation of a high standard of speech achievement toward which they should aim by work with phonograph records, sound films, demonstrations, radio, and observational projects? ..... 0-1-2
  - 8 Do you have a speech correction program available for students who stutter, lisp, and are maladjusted, or who speak with a dialect or accent? ..... 0-1-2

- 9 Do you have sizeable units devoted to the improvement of clearness and acceptability or articulation and pronunciation at various levels of instruction? .....0-1-2
- 10\* Do you have units devoted to the improvement of clearness, of the quality, and of the use of the voice for various types of speaking? .....0-1-2
- 11\* Do you have units devoted to clearness, acceptability, and effectiveness in the use of oral English at various levels of instruction? .....0-1-2
- 12\* Do you have units devoted to the selection and evaluation of subjects and materials to talk about for various levels of learning? .....0-1-2
- 13\* Do you help students enrich their background and knowledge for use in speaking as they mature intellectually? .....0-1-2
- 14\* Do you give instruction in the development of poise, directness, and expressive action in speaking? .....0-1-2
- 15\* Do you have units of instruction on the development of confidence, convictions, social sensitivity and consideration, and social responsibilities in speech for students of various aptitudes? .....0-1-2
- 16\* Do you give instruction on the development of discrimination in speaking for various purposes? .....0-1-2
- 17\* Do you give instruction on adapting speech to various types of listeners and situations? .....0-1-2
- 18\* Do you give instruction in appreciative and critical listening? .....0-1-2
- 19 Do you give instruction in theatre and movie appreciation? .....0-1-2
- 20\* Is instruction given in informal social and business speaking? .....0-1-2
- 21\* Do you give instruction in interviewing and person-to-person conference speaking? .....0-1-2
- 22\* Is instruction given in instructional speaking and oral reporting? .....0-1-2
- 23\* Do you give instruction in oral and interpretative reading from manuscript? .....0-1-2
- 24\* Do you give instruction in argumentative, persuasive, and inspirational speaking? .....0-1-2
- 25\* Do you give instruction for participation in dramatic productions involving understanding of dramatic literature, staging, and acting? .....0-1-2
- 26\* Do you give instruction in forum speaking, panel discussion, and parliamentary procedure? .....0-1-2
- 27 Do you give instruction in radio speaking, with or without public address equipment? .....0-1-2
- 28 Do you have a well-balanced program of course instruction in speech education beginning with correction and fundamentals, and advancing to more specialized objectives and interests? .....0-1-2
- 29 Do you have a co-curriculum (extracurriculum) activity program in which students are challenged to their best performance in competition with others of their own level of ability? .....0-1-2
- 30 Do you have a program of co-curriculum activities in which a relatively large number of your students participate? .....0-1-2
- 31\* Is your co-curriculum program based directly on courses of instruction with an emphasis on further education rather than winning contests? .....0-1-2
- 32 Do you have a well-balanced co-curriculum program including oral reading (declamation), discussion, debate, dramatics, and radio speaking? .....0-1-2



- 33\* Does your program stress speech training in functional school and community projects and situations such as assemblies, demonstrations, and club and festival programs? ..... 0-1-2
- 34\* Do you have a program of speech work in dramatics or other clubs? ..... 0-1-2
- 35 Is your program in speech instruction well-supported by and co-ordinated with other programs of instruction in your school such as social studies, English, and art? ..... 0-1-2
- 36\* Is your speech program directed toward making a contribution to education for life in a democratic society? ..... 0-1-2
- 37 Do you have a systematic speech examination program in your school by which you diagnose needs and abilities and evaluate achievements in speaking of all students? ..... 0-1-2
- 38\* Do you give diagnostic and achievement tests in speech as a regular part of course instruction? ..... 0-1-2
- 39 Do you keep an accumulative record of the speech needs and achievements of all students in your school system? ..... 0-1-2
- 40\* Do you keep an accumulative record of speech achievement in regular instruction? ..... 0-1-2
- 41 Do you have special services such as health examinations (including hearing and dental examinations), psychological counseling, and visiting teachers in your school system which you make use of in speech instructions? ..... 0-1-2
- 42\* Do you make use of modern speech texts, reference books, and magazines in your speech instruction? ..... 0-1-2
- 43\* Do you have extensive source material, such as magazines, pamphlets, and books, for speech making in a school library which you use in your speech instruction? ..... 0-1-2
- 44\* Do you have appropriate classrooms which can be used effectively for speech instruction? ..... 0-1-2
- 45 Do you have and use an efficient voice recording and playback instrument in your school system? ..... 0-1-2
- 46 Do you have and use speech charts, models, phonograph records, educational films, and other laboratory instruments for speech instruction? ..... 0-1-2
- 47\* Do you have a stage, with scenery, and lighting equipment for dramatic productions? ..... 0-1-2
- 48\* Is your program organized with adequate course time to achieve results in course objectives? ..... 0-1-2
- 49\* Is your instructional work in speech courses given sufficient academic credit and recognition to make it comparable in motivation and dignity with other courses? ..... 0-1-2
- 50\* Is your instructional program set up with the view of helping students in the reformulation of educational goals and continued growth in speech achievement in post-school years? ..... 0-1-2
- 51\* Have your teachers been educated and certificated to conduct the kinds of speech-teaching programs for which they are responsible in your school? ..... 0-1-2
- 52\* Do your teachers have adequate speech education to achieve results in a well-developed program? ..... 0-1-2
- 53 Do your teachers keep up to date in speech education by participating in professional speech conferences, reading and writing for a speech journal, going to summer schools for further work, etc? ..... 0-1-2

- 54\* Are your teachers enthusiastic about the type of service in speech education which they are giving? .....0-1-2
- 55 Are your teachers given relief in class instructional load when they carry late afternoon and evening co-curriculum instructional programs in order that they may function reasonably free from undue strain and fatigue? .....0-1-2
- 56\* Are your teachers physically healthy and energetic in their work? .....0-1-2
- 57\* Do you have an equipment and instructional budget adequate for getting results?.....0-1-2
- 58\* Do teachers and administrative staff work together in a spirit of harmony and co-operative inspiration? .....0-1-2

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## News Notes

**HORACE MANN SESQUICENTENNIAL.**—The year 1946 will mark the 150th anniversary of the birth of Horace Mann—father of our American system of free public schools—born on May 4, 1796, at Franklin, Massachusetts. The NEA Executive Committee has asked its Committee on Teacher Preparation to assume the responsibility for directing and carrying out this Sesquicentennial celebration of the birth of Horace Mann. The celebration will last throughout the year 1946 and may well have a profound effect on the work of our schools for many years to come.

The most important thing in the preparation of a teacher is a spiritual awakening to a sense of mission in the great task which is his. The eloquent writings of Horace Mann and a knowledge of his heroic struggle to lay the foundation for the schools we now enjoy can be used to good effect to orient both prospective and practicing teachers in a fuller knowledge of the significance of their task. The materials which will be developed in connection with the Horace Mann Sesquicentennial may well have the effect of preparing both our profession and the public for new advances in education.

**RECREATION YEARBOOK.**—The extent of the community recreation service in 1944 is revealed by the *Recreation Yearbook* recently published by the National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y. The facts presented have special value and interest since during the war no comparable data have been available since 1942. Reports from 1426 communities are included in the *Yearbook*. These reports show that community recreation service had a more significant place in American life in 1944 than ever before. A record number of men and women gave volunteer service. The number of men and women reported by all communities as employed for recreation leadership was 35,503. Of this number, 4,870 were employed in some 500 communities for full-time year-round recreation leadership service. In the case of both paid and volunteer leaders the women outnumbered the men reversing the situation before the war.

Expenditures for community recreation service in 1245 of the cities reporting totaled \$38,790,623—exceeding the amount spent in any previous year—not including WPA expenditures during the depression. Nearly half of current expenditures was spent for leadership salaries. Expenditures for land, buildings and permanent improvements were relatively small.

The wartime experience of the men and women in the Armed Forces is certain to influence future community recreation programs. Veterans who have used municipal swimming pools, played golf on city-owned courses, or used the game and craft rooms in recreation buildings are going to ask why they can't have these facilities in their own communities. Cities and towns all over the United States are planning to construct community recreation buildings as war memorials which will serve as centers for the recreational life of the people. Others are planning to develop parks, forests, playgrounds, or athletic centers as memorials.

All indications point to a growing interest and participation in swimming and water sports, for the construction of additional pools, beaches, and boating facilities. An increased use is seen of outlying parks and reservations, which will require additional facilities for camping, hiking, picnicking, and outing activities. The value of recreation leadership has been so fully demonstrated in the Army and Navy programs as well as in the city recreation

departments that there is likely to be a demand for more and better leadership in community recreation programs.

**COLOR SLIDES ON THE OTHER AMERICAN REPUBLICS.**—The American Council on Education, through the co-operation of the Office of Inter-American Affairs has recently completed assembling thirty-three teaching units of 2 x 2 color slides dealing with the other American republics. The project was directed by Florence Arquin. The assembling of these units was made possible by the interest and generous co-operation of the Brooklyn Museum, Chicago Museum of Natural History, Press Division of the Office of Inter-American Affairs, Museum of Modern Art, Art Department of the University of Texas, Pan American Airways, Taca Airways, and leading photographers including Florence Arquin and Julien Bryan.

Complete files of the thirty-three units listed below, together with teachers' notes, have been placed on deposit for loan distribution with the following institutions. For complete information concerning availability and service charges write directly to the nearest depository.

The Southern California Council of Inter-American Affairs, 707 Auditorium Building, Fifth and Olive Streets, Los Angeles 13, California

The Rocky Mountain Council on Inter-American Affairs, 1425 Cleveland Place, Denver, Colorado

Division of Inter-American Educational Relations, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.

Pan American Union, Washington 6, D. C.

Art Institute of Chicago, Chicago 3, Illinois

Extension Division, The State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

The Pan American Society of Massachusetts and Northern New England, Inc., 75 Newbury Street, Boston 16, Massachusetts

The Southern Council on International Relations, Box 1050, Chapel Hill, North Carolina  
Portland Extension Center, Oregon State System of Higher Education, Portland, Oregon  
Division of Education, Philadelphia Museum of Art, Parkway at 26th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pennsylvania

Institute of Latin American Studies, The University of Texas, Austin 12, Texas

The slide units are also available for *purchase* from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C. Prepaid orders sent to the Council after September 15 will be filled on or about June 1, 1946. Prices of individual units are indicated after each title. A special price of \$700.00 is offered on purchase of the complete set of 33 units. Notes for teachers, including ample background material, are supplied with each unit.

<i>Slide Sequences</i>	<i>Total Slides</i>	<i>Price</i>
1. Hunting Unusual Plants in Guatemala .....	49	\$24.50
2. Guatemala .....	81	40.50
3. Cartagena .....	33	16.50
4. Brazil Builds .....	46	23.00
5. Native Markets of Latin America .....	52	26.00
6. Rubber in the Amazon Basin .....	26	13.00
7. Native Life in an Amazon Village .....	33	16.50
8. Housing in Latin America .....	56	28.00
9. Mexican Churches (Colonial) .....	83	41.50

10. Colonial Painting in Mexico .....	26	13.00
11. Contemporary Mexican Painting .....	82	41.00
12. Contemporary Mexican Murals .....	71	35.50
13. Popular Arts in Mexico .....	37	18.50
14. South America—The Land .....	86	43.00
15. Agriculture in South America .....	91	45.50
16. Mining in South America .....	48	24.00
17. Transportation in Latin America .....	79	39.50
18. Weaving in the South American Highlands .....	41	20.50
19. Bolivian Highland Costumes .....	47	23.50
20. Indian Costumes in Latin America .....	52	26.00
21. Indian Life in the Lowlands of South America .....	22	11.00
22. Indian Life in the Highlands of South America .....	49	24.50
<i>Pre-Conquest Civilizations in Latin America</i>		
<i>Valley of Mexico</i> .....	(107)	(53.50)
23. Middle Culture .....	14	7.00
24. Teotihuacan .....	16	8.00
25. Tula—Toltec .....	37	18.50
26. Aztec .....	40	20.00
<i>Western Mexico</i> .....	(37)	(18.50)
27. Tarascan .....	37	18.50
<i>Southeastern Mexico</i> .....	(62)	(31.00)
28. Monte Alban and Mitla .....	37	18.50
29. Totonac .....	25	12.50
<i>Maya First Empire—Honduras</i> .....	(24)	(12.00)
30. Copan .....	24	12.00
<i>Maya Second Empire—Yucatan</i> .....	(73)	(36.50)
31. Chichen Itza .....	44	22.00
32. Uxmal .....	29	14.50
33. Inca Culture in Peru .....	33	16.50
Total .....	1,526	\$763.00

MICHIGAN PRIMARY SCHOOL INTEREST FUND.—All children between the ages of five through 19 are included in the census on which the distribution of Michigan's Primary School Interest Fund is made. The basis for allocation for the school year 1945-46 is \$9.00 per census child. The money was made available September first.

CORRELATING CLASSROOM FILMS WITH INSTRUCTION.—The sixth edition of the book *Classroom Films Correlated With School Programs*, is a result of more than fifteen years of research in the production, evaluation, and utilization of classroom films. The second section describes how the classroom film serves as a dynamic teaching medium and relates to many areas of the curriculum. Detailed analyses show how films are integrated with units of instruction and the content of typical textbooks at different grade levels. The booklet is free upon request by educators. Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Chicago.

**SOCIAL ISSUES DISCUSSED.**—The second number of the new *Journal of Social Issues*, (yearly subscription, 4 issues, \$2.00; single copies, 50 cents each) which is sponsored by a professional society of social psychologists, anthropologists, and allied social scientists, continues the practical analysis of *Racial and Religious Prejudice in Everyday Living* so instructively begun in the first number. As in the first number, the second issue presents several concrete case studies of prejudice—in the life of a Negro girl, in the life of a Japanese-American family, and in the drawing room at a social gathering of intelligent American friends of differing religious faiths. These cases are analyzed by both social scientists and well-known social practitioners whose job is action. The contributors are seeking both clear understandings of the special conflict or tension, and practical implications for action in each case. Both issues are under the editorship of Dr. Gene Weltfish.

The *Journal* published by the Association Press, 347 Madison Avenue, New York 17, New York, represents an experiment of research scientists and social practitioners in bringing their research data and experience together on a variety of mutual problems for the non-technical reader. The three cases of the second number, and the four prejudice episodes of the first number make excellent discussion material for groups interested in thinking about intercultural problems, as well as providing guidance from over thirty stimulating thinkers and workers in this field.

**TO ANALYZE GI INSTRUCTION METHODS.**—What civilian schools and colleges can learn from Army and Navy wartime educational techniques will be the subject of a two-year investigation soon to start under the auspices of the American Council on Education according to announcement of Dr. George F. Zook, president. A grant of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars (\$150,000) from the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the General Education Board has been received by the Council to carry on this work. The study will be under the direction of Dr. Alonzo G. Grace, Commissioner of Education of Connecticut, on leave of absence for this purpose. Dr. Grace will establish headquarters and staff in Washington, and will also have the assistance of a special commission of leading educators who will meet with the staff from time to time and visit military and naval installations to observe training programs in operation.

The study of the educational features of military training has been endorsed by both the Secretary of War and Secretary of the Navy, and Dr. Grace met with officials of the War and Navy Departments in Washington to map out plans for the project. Among the various subjects which have already been selected for study are the various procedures which the armed forces have used in selection, classification, and assignment, of personnel. Tests and testing procedures, rating scales, evaluation boards, etc., will be analyzed by Dr. Grace and his staff. Other studies will include the techniques of curriculum construction based upon analysis of the job to be done, the emphasis on demonstration and performance in teaching and continuous measurement of progress, new uses of printed materials, visual and auditory aids and school equipment, training programs for leadership and for the training of teachers, physical education and health, short term refresher courses, and new fields for women. An analysis will also be made of the non-military educational activities such as those of the United States Armed Forces Institute, and the Coast Guard and Marine Corps Institutes.

In commenting upon the study, Dr. Zook said, "In the past five years the United States has witnessed the development of the largest emergency training program in history. More than ten million men and women have been taught by the Army and Navy and their allied services to perform expertly the wide scale of duties necessary to the successful



carrying on of a total technological war. The scope and magnitude of this educational job are almost beyond belief.

"Training programs have ranged in duration from a few days to many months. They have been designed to cover every conceivable assignment from teaching men to read and from indoctrination on why we are fighting, to the development and operation of fine precision instruments and the leadership of men. The students in this educational experiment have been a true cross section of the physically and mentally capable citizens of the nation."

He said, "Although civilians have known in general about the training practices developed by the Armed Forces, alert educators have realized from the beginning that the requirements of military training provided an unprecedented opportunity for developing improved teaching procedures. Most of the men and women who were called into Service to organize these training programs came directly from our schools and colleges. They brought the best of known educational theory and practice, applied it in controlled situations and developed new processes where needed. The responsibility now is first to find effective means of measuring this military experience for its potential value to civilian practice, and, second, to facilitate the understanding and adaption of those features which will improve education and training in our schools and colleges."

"The results," according to Dr. Grace, "will be of interest and value to organized education at all levels. The public and many educators believe that the military training program can revolutionize civilian educational procedure. For example, we have heard much of the excellent material developed through motion pictures, radio, and recordings by the Army and Navy. There are other educators who doubt that anything meaningful to schools and colleges can be gathered from the military experience. The one extreme is as dangerous as the other. Honest analysis of the military experience is needed if we are to select wisely those things which can be applied to the improvement of teaching and administration. I should like to emphasize however, that the implications of this training are of equal or greater value for informal educational programs such as training programs within industry and adult education at all levels."

Dr. Grace indicated that the Commission expected to issue a series of definite reports when it had completed its work, but that it would also hope to make available exhibits for meetings, work conferences, etc., filmstrips, films, and radio programs dealing with the materials which were discovered to be of most significance for civilian schools and colleges.

**A NON-SKID PLASTIC FLOOR FINISH.**—No matter whether floors are linoleum, rubber, concrete, cork, or wood, the Utica Plastic Company, Oriskany and Broadway, Utica 2, New York states that they can be given a sparkling beauty treatment with a new liquid *Cellophane*-like plastic finish. It is reputed to eliminate the use of wax, to be non-skid, to save labor, last for months under heavy traffic, and make less work at less cost. This new liquid called *Plasti-Kleer* is quickly applied in liquid form by anyone. No skilled labor is necessary. It goes on smoothly whether applied with a cloth or brush; it needs no polishing and dries rapidly. It not only covers floors with a transparent film, but because it is hard, durable, and stain-resistant, it protects them against wear. Without cost the company will send actual samples of linoleum, wood, and concrete flooring covered with this new finish and demonstrate how to eliminate costly floor maintenance. For further information write to the company for color charts and description folder.

**MARYLAND ADOPTS 12-YEAR SCHOOL PROGRAM.**—During the last meeting of the Maryland State Legislature, legislation was passed and signed by the Governor of the State which changes the public education system of the state from an eleven-year program to

that of a twelve-year program. Elementary education will encompass grades one to six inclusive, while secondary education will encompass grades seven to twelve inclusive and will be organized on the junior high school, and senior high school or junior-senior high school basis. Section 186 and 187 of this act, No. 249, reads as follows:

"186. The county board of education of any county shall have authority to establish high schools, subject to the approval of the State Superintendent of Schools, in their respective counties, when, in their judgment, it is advisable to do so. Junior high schools, junior-senior high schools, and senior high schools, or any other combination of grades shall be organized with the approval of the State Superintendent of Schools according to rules and regulations of the State Board of Education for pupils who have completed the six elementary grades, and as soon as approval is given by the State Superintendent of Schools, any such high school so organized shall become a part of the minimum State school program. All high schools so established and those now in operation shall be under the direct control of the several county boards of education, subject to the provisions of this article; provided that when instruction below that of the high-school grades is given in the same building, or on the same premises such grade work may also be under the direct control of the county board of education, and the principal of the high school shall also be principal of the elementary school.

"187. For the encouragement of secondary education in Maryland, the State shall extend aid to high schools in such amounts, and in such manner as hereinafter designated and described. All high schools of the counties of the State of Maryland shall be in session not less than one hundred eighty (180) actual school days in each year.

No promotion of pupils from grade to grade in any high school shall be made without the approval of the county superintendent of schools; nor shall any pupils be graduated from a high schools without the approval of the State Superintendent of Schools. Regulations regarding the size and arrangement of the building, and its fitness for high-school work, the amount and character of equipment and supplies, and the necessary library and laboratories, shall be made by the State Board of Education; and State aid shall not be allowed on account of the employment of any teacher unless the department to which such teacher is assigned is adequately equipped and the quality of instruction is satisfactory.

No person shall be employed in any high school as principal or assistant teacher who does not hold the appropriate certificate as provided for in Chapter 8, Section 86, of this Article.

Junior high schools, junior-senior high schools, and senior high schools or any other combination of grades when organized according to regulations of the State Board of Education and satisfactorily administered, shall receive State aid in accordance with number and average daily attendance of pupils enrolled, teachers employed, and number of years and quality of instruction given."

**BILL OF RIGHTS OF TEACHERS OF SECONDARY MATHEMATICS.**—A Bill of Rights for the teacher of mathematics has a two-fold purpose. First, it should declare his right to an *opportunity* for adequate preparation for the tasks which lie ahead. Second, it should set forth his right to share fully in the *responsibility* associated with being a teacher of mathematics. The nature of mathematics and its uses in the work-a-day world can be made of primary significance. This can be done by facing the facts with intelligence, courage, and patience. There is a desperate need for a meaningful understanding of relationships (both arithmetical and functional) as well as of the techniques of mathematical manipu-

lation. The quantitative aspect of our current living offers both the opportunity and the responsibility for a fuller understanding through the mode of analysis commonly called mathematics. Accordingly the Mathematics Institute at Duke University a two-week program for high-school mathematics teachers under the directorship of Dr. W. W. Rankin believes that a teacher of secondary mathematics has two sets of rights:

A. Those relating to opportunity:

1. To expect colleges and universities to offer mathematics courses of more functional value than is being done.
2. To study at first-hand the applications of mathematics to science, engineering, social science, and government under competent instructors.
3. To have experience in business, in industry, and in government in order to become familiar with current practices in applications of mathematics.
4. To expect that school boards will provide financial assistance for teachers to visit other schools and attend conferences and institutes.
5. To expect encouragement from school administrators for needful experimentation with recent developments in content materials and methods of instruction.
6. To expect a salary commensurate with his training and his responsibilities.
7. To have access to a mathematics laboratory with its library, illustrative devices, mathematical instruments, and teaching aids for classroom use.
8. To participate in curriculum building and adaptation of the curriculum to his students in mathematics and in the selection of textbooks.
9. To have satisfactory tenure provisions, and adequate certification standards.

B. Those relating to responsibility:

1. To acquire the knowledge and the skills needed in assisting students to understand and appreciate mathematics.
2. To become familiar with the vocational opportunities in his field and in related fields in order to guide students intelligently.
3. To see that students realize the broad objectives essential to good citizenship and satisfactory vocational performances.
4. To help establish and maintain high standards of excellence in teaching.
5. To encourage students to broaden their horizons by investigating quantitative relationships wherever they may be found.
6. To participate co-operatively in the best available in-service training.
7. To be familiar with the historical development of mathematics and its uses through the ages. (Such knowledge has both cultural and utilitarian values.)
8. To affiliate with such organizations as promote the study of mathematics on the secondary level and stimulate his professional growth.

#### NEW REGULATIONS FOR DEFERMENT OF HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS.

—The National Association of Secondary-School Principals has been working since V-J Day on a change in the prevailing practice of inducting into the Armed Forces 18-year-old youth enrolled in secondary schools. The Selective Service Headquarters, Washington, D. C., has announced in Section 633.2-2 of the Selective Service Regulation, effective at once, through Amendment 345:

"Any person who entered upon a course of instruction at a high school or similar institution of learning before he became 18 years of age, and who is ordered to report for induction during the time he is pursuing such course

of instruction, shall, upon his request, have his induction postponed (1) until his graduation from a high school or similar institution of learning, or (2) until he ceases to pursue continuously and satisfactorily such course of instruction, or (3) until he arrives at the age of 20 years, whichever is the earlier.

"Any person who entered upon a course of instruction at a college or university before he became 18 years of age and who is ordered to report for induction during a quarter or semester of such course of instruction, shall, upon his request, have his induction postponed (1) until the end of such quarter or semester, or (2) until he ceases to pursue continuously and satisfactorily such course of instruction, whichever is the earlier."

**CONVENTIONS.**—The War Committee on Conventions has released the following statement:

"The ban on conventions, group meetings and trade shows was removed as of Oct. 1, 1945, the War Committee on Conventions announced. The restrictions were lifted on recommendation of the Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion, at whose instance they were imposed, effective Feb. 1, 1945. The Committee set up to consider convention applications was composed of Col. J. Monroe Johnson, director of the Office of Defense Transportation, chairman; and representatives of the Army, Navy, War Production Board, and War Manpower Commission. Until Aug. 17, permission of the War Committee on Conventions was required for the holding of any meeting of non-local character or with more than 50 non-local participants. The recent liberalization increased the attendance limit to 150 persons and permitted statewide gatherings of any size.

"Colonel Johnson expressed his thanks to the convention and trade groups and to the nation's hotels for their co-operation during the period the restrictions have been in effect. He said that the lifting of the ban by the War Mobilization director is not an invitation to travel nor can it be considered an assurance that transportation capacity will be available. The ODT director asked sponsors of conventions, group meetings, and trade shows to defer meetings whenever possible and to keep necessary meetings small until after the peak of the troop movement which will come early next year."

It is permissible through this statement for you to plan state, regional, and local conventions and conferences. State Associations of High-School Principals and State Co-ordinators can now arrange discussion group meetings and conferences.

**SCHOOLS EXPECTED TO BE A MAJOR FACTOR IN THE SUCCESS OF THE VICTORY LOAN** OCT. 29 Dec. 8.—When Treasury officials met just after V-J Day to make plans for the final Victory Loan, schools were mentioned again and again as indispensable to the success of the drive. The Treasury Department believes that school activity may be decisive and that the public will have cause to remember with pride for years to come how the schools pitched in to "help finish the job," and made the Victory Loan a success in spite of tremendous difficulties. Savings Bonds and Stamps are to be continued on sale in the postwar period. It will be important for people to continue to save in this way as long as the aftermath of the war (including the debt) is with us.

At the time of the Victory Loan there will be a number of Americans who will be either out of work or apprehensive about being out of work. They will be uncertain about how soon peacetime industry can re-employ them. People facing uncertainty are likely to buy Bonds as insurance even more wholeheartedly than other people—however, they won't be able to buy if they don't have income. This makes it doubly important in the Victory Loan to reach every individual in the country who is in a position to save. Surveys show that in past War Loans a little more than half of the income receivers of the country were personally solicited. The same surveys show, that those who were solicited were far more likely to buy than those who were not. This naturally suggests that one of the greatest services that schools can do in the final Victory Loan is to see that every home in the Nation is asked to buy Victory Bonds. The Treasury is counting on the schools to carry a Victory Bond order form to at least five million people who would not otherwise be reached. Schools have shown in the past that they can play a key role in the Bond Drives. The Treasury knows that the schools will come through once again in the Victory Loan and knows it can count on schools to set an example for the rest of the country by continuing an all-out program of purchasing Savings Bonds and Stamps to the limit of their capacity through winter and spring.

**EMERGENCY CHILD-LABOR REGULATIONS REVOKED.**—Katherine F. Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau, has announced the revocation of war-time amendments to the child-labor regulations issued under the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 covering establishments producing goods for shipment in interstate commerce. Child Labor Regulations No. 3 controlling the employment of 14- and 15-year-old children has been restored to its prewar standards for all industries. Hazardous Occupations Order No. 5 regarding operation of power-driven woodworking machines will no longer contain the emergency exemption under which 16- and 17-year-old minors were temporarily permitted to work on a few of the least hazardous of these machines. Under the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, the minimum age for most employment in establishments subject to the Act is 16 years, with an 18-year-minimum for specific hazardous occupations, and a 14-year minimum for certain work defined in Regulation No. 3 as not harmful.

**SCRIPT FOR A MUSICAL PAGEANT.**—*A New Birth of Freedom* is the title of a musical pageant prepared by the Education Section of the United States Treasury Department. It should be exceedingly useful to teachers as program material. This pageant presents a graphic description of the active part schools played in war activities and the necessity for continued participation in postwar objectives. This is material which is adaptable to many types of presentations. All sizes of schools will be able to use it since the cast is flexible enough to be expanded or contracted as is necessary. One copy to a school is available free upon request through its State War Finance Office, or from the Education Section, War Finance Division, Treasury Department, Washington 25, D. C.

**MEXICAN WAR WORKERS RETURN TO THEIR HOME COUNTRY.**—There are about 100,000 Mexican National War Workers in the United States.

At times when we faced a critical labor shortage these men came to work on our farms and railroads. They have made a vital and significant contribution to winning the war: with their help our crops have been harvested; our railroads maintained at peak efficiency; supplies and troops moved to all theaters of operations. Since 1942 when these workers began to come to the United States local organizations like yourselves have shown them traditional American hospitality and friendliness. Schools and colleges, social service agencies, civic groups, Inter-American Centers, Educational Service Bureaus, and numerous other organizations have taken the initiative in providing social, recreational, and educational programs for workers stationed in or near their towns and cities. With the end of the emergency these men will be returning home. Potentially they are a great army of good will ambassadors—men to whom we may give a message of genuine American friendship to carry back to their friends in every part of Mexico.

**SCRIPT-OF-THE-MONTH.**—Radio-minded teachers, club advisers, and discussion leaders will be interested in "Script-of-the-Month," a new service sponsored by *The American Mercury*. "Script-of-the-Month" is a complete 15-minute radio program that can be used on or off the air as the basis for group discussion. Script is issued monthly and will be based on current news articles appearing in *The American Mercury*. It takes the form of a round-table discussion with easy-to-read dialogue for four participants and an opening and closing statement for an announcer. While the basic framework of the discussion is provided, speakers are advised to "ad lib" their remarks wherever possible to give spontaneity to the broadcast, on a public address system as a school broadcast, in the auditorium as an assembly program, in club meetings as a panel discussion, in classrooms as part of the lesson material. Teachers of English, public speaking, current events, and social studies will find "Script-of-the-Month" especially useful. Free copies of these scripts may be obtained by writing to Radio Department, *The American Mercury*, 570 Lexington Avenue, New York 22, N. Y.

**SOCIAL HYGIENE EDUCATION.**—In recognition of the need for establishing sound basic principles for a social hygiene education program at the Federal level, the U. S. Office of Education called a conference in Washington. This conference was attended by 38 persons representing many fields of educational endeavor and experience. The conference directed attention to the educational phases of a social hygiene program. Medication, legal action, and social measures were recognized as influencing educational procedures, but the procedures and techniques were considered outside the scope of the conference discussions.

After the preliminary sessions, the conference organized five committees to consider principles and philosophy, material and methods in the schools, special problems, teacher education, and program implementation. Committee deliberations were reported to the entire group for discussion and conference acceptance. It has a variety of uses. It may be presented on the air as an actual individual adjustments in family life, and the creation of a wholesome community

The central aims of social hygiene education are the preservation and strengthening of the family, the improvement of various interpersonal associations and

environment. Social hygiene education properly conceived can make important contributions to richer, more wholesome living both for the individual and within the community. If such social evils as delinquency and venereal diseases did not exist, there would still be a need for positive social hygiene education to insure individual fulfillment in personal living and group relations in the every day life of all people.

1. Social hygiene education is based on the thesis that the sex factor in human living as it affects personal development, and especially in its relation to marriage, parenthood, the home, and the family, merits a dignified place among other topics of intense human interest.
2. Social hygiene education is an integral part of the total education of each human being. It is never finished but should keep pace with increasing maturity and experience.
3. Social hygiene education strives for the best possible development of all physical, psychological, ethical, and social aspects of life as these are in any way determined or influenced by the sex factor and its resulting traditions and associations. Thus broadly conceived, it inevitably involves moral concepts and religious values.
4. Social hygiene education is based on the recognition and acceptance of sex as basic in human behavior and relationships. A primary purpose of such education is to establish attitudes, habits, and ideals toward sex which are satisfying to the individual and which, at the same time, enable him to act in a socially responsible manner.
5. Since the home has the child during his most formative years, it is in the best position to make social hygiene education a natural part of the day-by-day process of growth and development. But as the child's environment expands beyond the home, he meets an increasing number of questions and problems with sex connotations. There is, therefore, a responsibility on the part of various community agencies, such as the church, the school, and the group of work agencies, to share with the home the continuing sex education of the child.

While these principles are general, they have specific implications for school programs.

1. Social hygiene instruction should help youth to see the relation of sex to personality development, human happiness, complete family life, and the fullness of individual living. For this reason separate courses on "sex-hygiene" or sex-facts are unsound, as is any kind of instructional procedure tending to set sex adjustments apart as an isolated phase of human behavior. This is particularly true of children and adolescents where the first need is to establish an understanding of human relationships and the interdependence of behavior traits. Separate courses for professional preparation with individuals already holding these important concepts are justifiable.



2. The integration of subject matter into current course offerings is the most acceptable procedure for building a body of instructional material at the elementary and secondary levels.
3. Those subjects emphasizing elementary science, healthful personal living, biological understandings, concepts of family relations and family life, and a developing sense of social responsibility are the ones best suited to carry this content at the elementary level. For the younger child the development of wholesome attitudes and concepts of responsible social behavior are of paramount importance.
4. At the secondary level the same objectives as those stressed at the elementary level should be advanced, with an increased emphasis on the factual information and attitudes requisite to prepare the pupil for satisfactory living as an adolescent. As indicated before, these objectives must be directed toward insuring a satisfactory total adjustment on the part of the individual.
5. The emphasis must be on the normal and positive aspects of conduct and adjustment. Abnormalities should not be stressed in any aspects of education. Youth should be encouraged to look toward the normal, positive, healthful, and aesthetic aspects of human relations.
6. Coupled with factual information must be the establishment of values and the crystallization of moral concepts. These values and concepts will be best built through helping youth to see the outcomes of various patterns of conduct. He must see clearly how the highest human and social values are fostered by a recognition in his personal conduct of his responsibility for the welfare and good adjustment of others.
7. Wholesome sexual adjustments are aided when the individual finds opportunity for creative activities, normal affectional relations in his associations with others, and a reasonable degree of security. At the same time that the individual is asked to observe social conventions, social arrangements must be developed which have due regard for the nature and needs of the individual. For that reason teachers interested in social hygiene education must be concerned with those social conditions which center about recreation, housing, adequate educational opportunities, and satisfactory conditions for family life.

#### *Inauguration of a Program*

In discussing procedures for inaugurating social hygiene education programs in schools, two important points were emphasized:

1. Any school program in social hygiene must be adapted to the needs and resources of that community and developed to suit the attainment level of the pupils and their parents.
2. Education about sex matters, particularly attitudes, is inevitably given both within and without the school. A teacher who shunts aside with embarrassment a situation touching upon sex, has taught unwholesome and evasive attitudes. The choice, therefore, is not between teaching or ignoring, but between instruction given by the ignorant and misinformed, or by trained teachers, parents, health, welfare, and religious workers.

The following suggestions are intended to help schools desiring to initiate social hygiene education programs:

1. All teachers who have adequate background and the resources should be encouraged to begin or expand this work.
2. Especially suitable spots in the educational program should be selected initially to introduce and demonstrate the feasibility of social hygiene education. Such spots as the following are suggested:  
Nature study classes in the elementary school.  
The school or public library.  
Hi-Y, Girl Reserves, the Scouts, Campfire Girls, and 4-H Club groups.  
Biology, home economics, physical education, health instruction, social studies, and English at the secondary level. These subjects are particularly adapted to social hygiene instruction.  
Preinduction groups.
3. Whenever possible, work with interested groups in the community, *e.g.*, co-operate with the local units of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers in carrying out their social hygiene project for schools.
4. Make approved literature easily available to pupils through libraries and in classrooms.
5. The support of responsible and sympathetic community leaders should be sought to help interpret the program to the community.
6. An indication of the need for such a program may be gained through a survey of recent graduates to find the extent to which they feel the school program is adequate in this respect. Secure other data which indicate need, resources, and results.

#### *Instruction at the Secondary Level*

Instruction on the secondary level should ideally continue to stress the objectives begun at the elementary level. Materials should be incorporated directly into the various course offerings. Instruction must be appropriate to the developmental level of youth, stress their important problems, and be designed to assist in the transition from youth to responsible adult living. A variety of opportunities for aiding youth present themselves through debate, drama, and allied activities. Individual counseling and guidance should be available to all youth desiring assistance on personal problems.

Joint planning is an important phase of educational endeavor in social hygiene education. School authorities should plan with responsible parents and community groups for the development of a suitable school program. Within the school, pupil-teacher planning for the proper development of the program within the class contributes to the development of desirable attitudes and a better understanding of needs and problems. Administratively, careful planning is necessary to include all important emphases and to avoid overlapping. This may be done through faculty planning and discussion, or through appointing some interested faculty member to act as a co-ordinator.

Various community resources can be of much value in a school social hygiene education program. These include both official agencies such as the health departments and public library, and non-official ones such as local churches and women's clubs. Observational study visits to libraries, zoos, museums, nursery schools,

and farms will provide instructional aids. The use of competent professional individuals such as health officers, nurses, physicians, welfare workers, religious leaders, and psychologists, and of non-professional but highly competent and well-adjusted individuals in the community for leading discussions, as speakers or counselors, is another source of assistance.

**SCHOOLS URGED TO PROCEED ON BUILDING PLANS.**—Fear that present materials may be obsolete in the building era ahead is groundless and those in charge of the development of the school plant can and should proceed now with their plans for construction. That is the conviction of Reginald E. Marsh, nationally known school architect, who characterizes much of the talk about new materials as “unjustifiable ballyhoo” and calls for realism in the development of the postwar school building program. On the basis of various surveys he believes that a sum between \$2,500,000,000 and \$5,000,000,000 is needed for construction in the educational field.

After considerable research in building materials Marsh declares in the September issue of *School Management* that nothing has been discovered or developed to replace the basic building materials. Plastics, most talked-of new material, are still limited in use, and developments in some materials, such as impregnated plywood and aluminum alloys, are creating new uses, but the materials themselves cannot be classified as new, he declares. Brick, stone, and steel will continue the basic structural materials, Marsh writes. Floor and wall tile will be employed liberally in interiors because of its low upkeep cost, always a major consideration in school building; plaster and wood will be used for wall finish; and there will be increased use of acoustic materials, insulated glass, glass block, radiant heating, fluorescent lighting, and germicidal lamps, he believes.

New schools will be streamlined for simplicity and economy, but this does not mean the elimination of all architectural treatment. “Frills and unnecessary ornamentation are definitely out,” Marsh says, but “good proportion, attractive fenestration and interesting plan development to get away from the box or factory-type design are all objectives for which the architect will strive.” Wartime experimentation in prefabrication has proved unsatisfactory and has not contributed to low cost for schools, according to Marsh. Prefabricated units and materials may be used, but that is as far as prefabrication will go in school construction, he believes. Flexibility in planning will be an important factor, he believes. “This has been difficult in the past due to rigid building codes. Codes should and probably will be modified so as to be informative as well as regulatory.” Classrooms will be made more cheerful and attractive by means of various pastel shades, says Marsh. “Each room will be treated individually to meet special conditions such as orientation, age of the pupil, and type of classroom. Wallpaper will be used more extensively. Dadoes of tile or other durable and washable material will be provided under the blackboard, which, incidentally, has become a misnomer inasmuch as the so-called blackboard will be furnished in glass or artificial materials in light colors.”

Community use of schools will increase, Marsh predicts. “This will be particularly true in rural areas where there is no public library, auditorium, or gymnasium,” he writes. Adult education will be continued, and thousands of service-

men whose education was abruptly terminated by the war will desire to go back to school even if it means night courses of study. Many, Marsh believes, will seek vocational training. "The war has brought home the need of preparedness in vocational training as well as physical development," he declares.

Increased cost of construction will create difficult problems, Marsh warns. The architect's dream of the postwar school may in reality turn out to be a nightmare unless those in authority co-operate in the development of the plans and design and realize the importance of eliminating all spaces which are not absolutely necessary to meet the educational needs," he writes. "It may even be necessary to cut down on some of the much-to-be-desired facilities in order that materials of proper type and quality can be specified. It will be far better and more economical in the end to use durable materials for both construction and finish and thereby reduce upkeep; on the other hand, the architect will be failing in his professional services if he specifies unduly costly materials and mechanical equipment and thereby sacrifices needed spaces for educational facilities."

**READING YEARBOOK.**—The 1945 Claremont College Reading Conference Yearbook, published by Alpha Iota Chapter of Pi Lambda Theta in co-operation with the Claremont College Library, is based on the theme: Personal Factors Affecting Reading and Learning. The importance of developing in an individual the ability to sense and react adequately to various stimuli is the keynote of the twenty-three articles written by prominent educators and specialists in other fields. Six divisions with sub-topics deal specifically with physiological, social, aural and visual, and bilingual factors affecting reading, as well as with instructional materials. An introductory article by Dr. Peter L. Spencer, Director of the Conference, gives an overview of the reading concept on which this and the nine preceding conference yearbooks have been based; i.e., reading, in the broader sense, is the process of making discriminative reactions to stimuli.

**CAREER POSTER SERIES.**—Classroom teachers interested in helping students see the relationship of their individual courses to occupations will welcome Science Research Associates' (228 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4) 1945-46 poster series, entitled, *Class to Career*. Each of the nine posters will be devoted to a different school subject and will be attractively illustrated . . . a valuable addition to the classroom bulletin board. These posters are published monthly from September through May. School courses covered are: English, industrial arts, home economics, mathematics, social science, chemistry, foreign language, commercial, and biology.

**HIGH SCHOOL COURSES FOR VETERANS PLANNED.**—Veterans Institutes will be operated in a number of Michigan high schools during the present school year according to plans completed at a meeting held in Lansing. The Veterans Institutes will make it possible for a veteran to complete a high-school education and receive a diploma without being placed in classes with younger boys and girls. The curriculum will be broadened to include whatever training the veteran needs. He will progress as fast as his individual ability permits. In addition to the regular courses offered by the school faculty, correspondence courses will provide supplemental training. These courses will be approved by

the Department of Public Instruction and will be supervised by the school faculty. In this way, small high schools can offer the veteran the same facilities for an education as the big city schools. These plans have received the full approval of the Veterans Administration which will reimburse the school for the cost of the instruction, under the G. I. Bill of Rights. Full details for setting up and operating a Veterans Institute have been prepared and released to the Michigan schools. Approximately 130,000 servicemen from Michigan, less than 25 years of age, who do not have high-school diplomas may be interested in these Institutes according to latest estimates.—*News of the Week*.

**SETTING UP THE VETERANS INSTITUTE.**—Act 182 of the 1945 session of the Michigan Legislature provides for the establishment of a veterans institute as a separate department within the school system of this state. The purpose of the Act is to enable the veteran, and wherever possible the non-veteran, to continue his education at the level of maturity, the rate of speed, and the degree of motivation characteristic of an experienced student eager to achieve an immediate goal. In the establishment and conduct of veterans institutes no departure from sound educational practice is anticipated. The intention is to offer a means of bridging the gap between the veteran's present educational status and his educational goal.

It is difficult to forecast the need for veterans institutes. At least 130,000 Michigan G. I.'s, less than 25 years of age, do not now hold high-school diplomas. Will the institute attract and serve them? To do this, the institute must make sensible adaptations in admission requirements, in hours of attendance, in curriculum offerings, and in provision for meeting the individual needs of the veterans. Thus a distinctive and useful type of school may come into existence.

Without the creation of a veterans institute within the school system, a public high school in Michigan is prohibited from making tuition charges for veterans, and accordingly may not receive reimbursement from the Veterans' Administration under the G. I. Bill of Rights for services rendered to veterans.—*News of the Week*.

**GUIDANCE OF YOUTH.**—"It is very likely that the graduates coming from our high schools in the next decade will face problems of job adjustment more serious than those ever before faced by any generation of young people." This statement has been repeated by authority after authority. Sharp postwar competition for jobs is almost a certainty, and seniority, experience, and preferential hiring will tend to block the 18-year-old's chances of landing a good position.

Much of the responsibility for helping to solve this problem rests with the schools, since they deal with young people at a formative period. Many schools have instituted guidance programs to help fit their students for the difficulties they will face. To assist in making school guidance programs work effectively, Science Research Associates, of 228 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois, works with teachers, counselors, and administrators in producing a monthly publication entitled *Occupational Information System*. The *Occupational Information System* is a means of equipping schools and service organizations with tools to carry on an effective program to guide young people. Occupational information,

professional helps, and research service for special problems are provided. The *System* helps to meet the far different, far more pressing guidance problems of the years that are ahead.

Three subscription plans are available at \$19.95, \$27.95, and \$37.95 each. Complete information about these plans can be secured from the company.

**RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE CO-ORDINATION OF INFORMATION AND SERVICE ON 16MM GOVERNMENT FILMS.**—"The American public is today being served with government films through more than three hundred colleges and universities, public libraries, school systems, and commercial film libraries. The big problem facing these users and distributors of films is the lack of a center of information and service on government films. There is no single agency in government from which film users and distributors can obtain information, purchase prints, or arrange for deposit of prints from the thirty or more different agencies in Government supplying films. The Library of Congress provides a centralized service on printed materials and still pictures and serves as a bureau of information to the general public in all matters involving the serious use of such materials. It is believed that the Library of Congress, which is an over-all service agency of the Government is the logical agency to provide a service on motion pictures similar to the centralized service already provided for printed materials and still pictures. We, therefore, recommend that the Library of Congress establish the following government film facilities and services as a supplement to the administrative or specialized services of the various agencies of origin:

1. Set up and maintain a film information service, including the following:
  - a. A listing of film sources and conditions under which films may be obtained.
  - b. A periodical release of a catalog, and/or supplements thereto, of all films under custody of government agencies.
  - c. Gathering and disseminating information on films in production and new releases.
2. Set up and co-ordinate arrangements for the sale to the public of positive prints of complete subjects and footage of films available for public use.
3. Provide facilities for general distribution through qualified film libraries of available films as a service to the general public.
4. To eliminate possible and potential duplication, provide for government agencies only a monthly list of all government films in production, with synopses, from the planning through the distribution stages.
5. To exchange information, to strengthen co-operation and to improve the technical quality of government film productions:
  - a. Set up and arrange regular meetings of government film production, distribution, and utilization advisory committees composed of representatives with alternates from each of the government agencies interested in film production, distribution, and utilization, to be designated by the heads of the respective agencies.



- b. Set up a technical consultation service on film production, distribution, and utilization.
6. Provide in the Washington area screening room facilities and, for government agencies, film loan facilities.
7. Maintain close contact with distributors and users of government films throughout the country in order better to serve the general public."

More than three hundred film libraries have served as distributors to the people of the United States of government films provided through the Office of War Information for the prosecution of the war effort. Many of the films still have peace-time values as means of public information or for historical reference purposes. Since these depositories volunteered to distribute through OWI information from the Government to the people, and since OWI ceased to function on September 15, 1945, the National OWI 16MM Advisory Committee petitions: That it is in the public interest that suitable films now distributed by these depositories be allowed to remain in them.

**16MM SOUND FILMS FOR CLASS WORK AND OTHER PROGRAMS.**—Instructional films on education, child welfare, biology, health and medicine, science, and also informational films, both historical and current, may be borrowed from the Regional Offices of the British Information Services for a handling charge of 25 cents a reel. For a free catalog or further information, apply to "Film Officer, British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York."

**SCHOOL LIFE RESUMES PUBLICATION.**—The U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, has resumed publication of its monthly official journal, *School Life*. *School Life*, well-known to educators for the past quarter century, had been replaced during the war years by the emergency biweekly, *Education for Victory*, which kept educators informed of the many and varied war programs, their relations to education, and education's vital contributions to the winning of the war. *Education for Victory* ceased publication with the issue dated June 20, 1945 (Vol. 3, No. 24). *School Life*, which is published monthly, except August and September, during the coming year will contain departmental sections on school administration, secondary education, vocational education, elementary education, auxiliary school service, and international educational relations. It will continue, as before the war, to bring to its readers reports and results of significant studies by specialists in the many educational fields. It will present official information concerning Federal legislation and regulations affecting education; reports on educational activities, trends, and progress from the various States and from over the world. *School Life* may be obtained by subscription at \$1.00 per year from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

**CIVICS NOT REQUIRED FOR GRADUATION OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS WHO HAVE HAD MILITARY SERVICE.**—Under Section 897 of the General School Laws of the state of Michigan, 1940 revision, civics is a requirement for graduation for all high-school students except those students who have



had military service in World War II. The section as amended by Act 203, P. A. of 1945, reads:

Sec. 1. In all Michigan high schools, offering 12 grades of work, a one semester course of study of five recitation periods per week shall be given in civics, said course covering the form and functions of our federal and state governments and of counties, cities, and villages. Throughout the course the rights and responsibilities of citizens shall be stressed. No diploma shall be issued by any high school after the first semester of 1933 to any student unless such student shall have successfully completed said course: *Provided*, that such civics course shall not be a graduation requirement for any high school student who has enlisted or has been inducted into military service during the present period of hostilities.—*News of the Week*.

TEACHING FILM SURVEY.—A group consisting of publishers of textbooks and a publisher of classroom magazines is undertaking a survey of educational motion pictures and other visual aids to education. The purpose of the survey is to evaluate the effectiveness of visual aids now available and to explore more fully the possibilities of correlations between film and textbook.

The publishers financing and supervising the survey are Harcourt, Brace & Company, Harper & Brothers, Henry Holt & Company, Houghton Mifflin Company, The Macmillan Company, Scholastic Magazine, and Scott, Foresman & Company. Informally they have labeled the project *The Teaching Films Survey*. The work is already in progress under the direction of Carroll Belknap.

A formal statement issued in the name of the group says: "It is recognized that training and indoctrinating films produced by the Army and Navy, as well as by other government agencies and industrial corporations, have accelerated the use of films and film strips as educative agencies. Believing that this trend will continue, and that its development is definitely related to the accumulated experience and editorial competence of the textbook publishers, the survey group hopes to discover ways and means of participation which may in due course be both professionally gratifying and financially sound."

ANNIVERSARY NUMBER—*Scholastic Magazine* is celebrating its 25th publishing anniversary. Founded in 1920 by its present publisher, M. R. Robinson, *Scholastic* was first known as *The Western Pennsylvania Scholastic*. Circulation was limited to a few thousand students in 50-odd high schools within the area indicated by its name. In 1922, *Scholastic* expanded from a regional paper to a national fortnightly magazine, and in 1936, became a weekly. From this parent magazine, *Junior Scholastic* and *World Week* subsequently developed to meet the needs of all age levels from 6th grade through senior high school. To commemorate *Scholastic's* first quarter-century of publication, a special anniversary issue, October 22nd, highlighted the major developments of the last twenty-five years in literature, domestic and foreign affairs, science, aviation, sports, radio, and movies. Among additional features are picture stories illustrating twenty-five years of American life, and twenty-five years of America as a world power, from Versailles to the Atomic Bomb. "An Editorial Credo," setting forth *Scholastic Magazine's* editorial policy, may be obtained by writing to *Scholastic Magazine*.

**NEW KODACHROME SLIDES.**—To bring a cross-section of much of the best work by American painters of the 20th century into classrooms and lecture halls throughout the United States, Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Public Relations Department, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6, Illinois, will distribute a series of kodachrome slides reproducing 116 canvases from the Britannica Collection of Contemporary American Painting. The slides will be contained in a functional and easily portable case which will also hold a portfolio of lecture materials and suggestions and a copy of *Contemporary American Painting*, a book on the Britannica collection written by Grace Pagano and published by Duell, Sloan, and Pearce. These complete units of materials are expected to be produced in a quantity sufficient for widespread distribution this year. The slides themselves will be standard size, two by two inches, and will reproduce in full color representative paintings from the collection. Most of the best-known painters who have lived and worked in this country since the turn of the century are included. A general introduction to the use of the slides, combining a historical and philosophical approach to contemporary American painting, is provided in a portfolio of lectures. A sample lecture on the topic, "Woman," as portrayed by six different painters, is accompanied by ten themes for additional lecture material. A separate section of the portfolio is devoted to a lecture on the chronology of American painting, covering the development of American art during the first forty years of this century. Under another heading, ten interesting contrasts showing the variety of handling of similar subject matter are developed. The book, *Contemporary American Painting*, contains 116 reproductions, 41 of them in color, of paintings from the collection, with explanatory material by Mrs. Pagano and a personal statement by most of the artists opposite each plate. Donald Bear, director of the Santa Barbara Museum of Art, Daniel Catton Rich, director of fine arts, The Art Institute of Chicago, and Frederic Taubes, artist and teacher, have written prefatory articles for the book.

**LAWS AFFECTING JUVENILES COMPILED.**—School administrators will be interested in a compilation of Michigan laws affecting juveniles recently issued by Commissioner Oscar G. Olander, of the Michigan State Police, Lansing. While the compilation is intended especially for law enforcement officers and youth guidance workers, it provides a ready reference source of information to groups and agencies concerned about the problems of juvenile delinquents.

**PENGUIN BOOKS' POLICY.**—Since Penguin Books, Inc., 245 Fifth Avenue, New York 16, N. Y., made its appearance in the United States in 1942, it has been hampered in its operations by wartime restrictions. Now that these have ended Penguin plans a big expansion policy. Penguin has built a substantial list of titles of permanent value and will keep most of these in print. In line with paper availability, more than twenty titles will be made available for distribution in the immediate future, and the output of new titles is to be stepped up to from four to six a month. In addition, surveys of what the American public likes to read and wants to buy have influenced Penguin to make a very important move in another direction. Penguin is going into non-fiction. It is thus creating a new publishing policy and in a field hitherto very much neglected by reprint houses.

**A BLUEPRINT FOR THE FUTURE.**—This was the aim of the 35 junior college leaders, representing all areas of the country and all sizes and types of junior colleges, who met for four days at Chicago to lay plans for future activities of the American Association of Junior Colleges. The association, which this year is celebrating its 25th anniversary, has reflected a steady growth and development.

The following plans were unanimously decided upon at Chicago: (1) Continue the Washington headquarters office of the association; (2) through an expansion of committees and provision of funds for their work, cover more areas of study and take advantage of the abilities of more members of the Association; (3) enlarge research activity, not only taking advantage of the abilities of these committees, but also bringing into use for junior college research the facilities of leading universities over the country; and (4) present for the consideration of the membership at the next annual meeting a new, broader, and more flexible constitution. Local meetings of junior college administrators and faculty members will be held all over the country to discuss and point up the details of these plans.

**FLIGHT COURSES IN HIGH SCHOOLS.**—The first state law authorizing high school contracts for student flight instruction is now on the books of Wisconsin, whose Department of Public Instruction has worked out, with technical assistance from the Civil Aeronautics Administration, a recommended program of four hours of flight experience to supplement classroom aeronautics studies. Considered a significant step forward in aviation education, since it offers a model for the enabling legislation required in many states before high-school flight instruction can be given, the bill was enacted June 5. It provides as follows:

"The board of any school district which operates a high school may contract with flight operator schools approved by the Civil Aeronautics Administration for courses in flight instruction approved by the State Superintendent. The cost of such contract shall be paid out of school district funds and shall be included in the cost of operation and maintenance of the high-school districts which enter into such contract for the purpose of computing tuition costs."—*Contact*.

**FOREIGN LANGUAGE ENROLLMENT.**—The upward trend in the enrollment in foreign languages which began a year ago has continued as reported by Theodore Huebener, in the May 1945 issue of *High Points*. In the senior high schools of New York City there is an increase of 838, in the junior high schools 1531, and in the vocational schools 15—a total gain of 2349 or 1½%. Of the modern languages, French shows the largest numerical increase and German the largest percentage increase in both senior and junior high schools. The total gains for both languages are respectively 1779 and 652. In one year, French increased by 2179 and German by 1352. Italian increased 5% in the senior high schools and 7% in the junior high schools giving it a total of 9310. It ranks third among the modern languages. This language, as well as German, is again represented in the vocational high schools. In this division there are now 845 students of five foreign languages taught in six schools. Although Spanish rose by 704 in the junior high schools, it lost 1285 in the senior high schools and 95 in the vocational schools, thus showing a net decline of 676. Hebrew gained in both types of academic schools. Its total enrollment in 14 schools now is 2669. Portuguese gained 37 students. It is taught in one vocational and one senior high school (James Monroe). Latin declined in both senior and junior high schools by 406. Its total enrollment, however, is still 15,554, giving it third place among all the languages. Greek, which has small groups in two senior high schools, enrolls the smallest number of students, namely 28.

## FOREIGN LANGUAGE ENROLLMENT—MARCH 5, 1945

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS				
	Oct. 1944	Mar. 1945	Gain, Loss	%
Portuguese .....	0	35	35	100
French .....	28,943	29,976	1,033	3½
German .....	6,206	6,734	528	8½
Greek .....	24	28	4	17
Hebrew .....	2,398	2,544	146	6
Italian .....	5,899	6,199	300	5
Latin .....	13,288	13,246	- 42	---
Spanish .....	48,642	47,357	- 1,285	- 3
Gen. Lang. ....	395	514	119	13
	105,795	106,633	838	+ ¾%
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS				
French .....	19,082	19,795	713	4
German .....	1,007	1,077	70	7
Hebrew .....	103	125	22	21
Italian .....	2,890	3,093	203	7
Latin .....	2,610	2,236	- 374	- 14
Spanish .....	11,097	11,801	704	6
Gen. Lang. ....	0	193	193	100
	36,789	38,320	+ 1,531	+ 4%
VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOLS				
French .....	55	88	33	60
German .....	0	54	54	100
Italian .....	0	18	18	100
Latin .....	69	72	3	4
Portuguese .....	155	157	2	1
Spanish .....	651	456	- 95	- 17
	830	845	+ 15	+ 2%
TOTALS				
French .....	48,080	49,859	1,779	4
German .....	7,213	7,865	652	9
Greek .....	24	28	4	17
Hebrew .....	2,501	2,669	168	7
Italian .....	8,789	9,310	521	6
Latin .....	15,967	15,554	- 413	- 2-3/5
Portuguese .....	155	192	37	24
Spanish .....	60,290	59,614	- 676	- 1
Gen. Lang. ....	395	707	312	79
	143,414	145,798	+ 2,384	+ 1½

# The Book Column

## Charts, Films, Maps, Records for Pupil and Teacher Use—

*Africa*. New York: Friendship Press, Inc. 1945. 50c. A decorative map of Africa with an insert sheet having informational notes, suggestions for activities, and 28 pictures to be colored, cut out, and pasted on the map.

*Educators Guide to Free Films*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1945. 254 pp. \$4.00. A cyclopedic service of annotated free films and slide films classified into usual subject breakdowns of the curriculum. 1270 titles (356 new in this edition.) A real service for any busy principal or the person in charge of the visual-aids program of the school.

*Model Mill Chart*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: General Mills, Inc. Free. Vitamin and Mineral Information Chart.

*Motion Pictures Owned by or Relating to the American Railroads*. Washington, D. C.: The Association of American Railroads. 1944. 19 pp. Free. A list of films available to schools free—Scenery, industrial, agricultural, historical, and commercial titles. Largely 16-mm. shorts.

*On A Note of Triumph*. New York: Columbia Recording Corporation. \$6.50 per set of six records. An album of recordings from the broadcast written in preparation of V-E Day by Norman Corwin with special music by Bernard Herrmann. Excellent for school use.

*The Peace Builders*. Washington, D. C.: National Film Board of Canada. 16-mm. sound. One reel, 10 min. \$17.50 per print or rental at \$1.25 per booking from Brandan Films, Inc., New York. A documentary motion picture of historic conferences leading to the International Security Organization.

*Spotlight on Congress*. (MARCH OF TIME). Washington, D. C.: National Planning Association. The day of a Congressman. Prominent figures at the Capitol. Interesting sequences with revealing commentary.

*Utilization Scope of Encyclopedia Britannica Films*. Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc. 1945. Catalog of professionally created films classified under subject headings, charted for curriculum usage, and annotated. Handy form.

## Pamphlets, Workbooks, and Other Materials for Pupil and Teacher Use—

American Council on Education. *Student Personnel Work in the Postwar College*. Washington, D. C.: The Council. 1945. 95 pp. 75c. Trends in counseling programs, the role of the faculty counselor, the scope of the college's task. Appendices on records and credit for military service.

ANDRADE, JORGE CARRERA. *Mirador Terrestre*. Forest Hills, New York: Las Americas Publishing Company. 1943. 62 pp. \$1.00. The history, geography, and culture of Ecuador written in Spanish and illustrated.

ARAUJO, MURILLO. *A Estrela Azul*. Forest Hills, New York: Las Americas Publishing Co. 1943. 64 pp. \$3.00 a year (6 issues). One of a series introducing writers of Latin America. In Spanish.

- ARNOLD, W. *Cartels or Free Enterprise*. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc. 1945. 32 pp. 10c. The caustic judge is a well-known champion of industrial freedom and upholds the economic traditions of America to produce and sell in an uncontrolled market.
- The Australian Army at War*. New York: Australian News and Information Bureau. 1945. 64 pp. Free. Illus. The record of Australia's military service in the war just ended.
- The Baconian Lectures*. Iowa City: University of Iowa. 1944. 134 pp. Lectures centered about Iowa University's achievements in research in the decade preceding Pearl Harbor.
- BENDICK, JEANNE. *The Amazing Electron*. New York: Electronic Corporation of America. 1945. 32 pp. Free. (20 or more, 5c each) Illus. Simple explanation of the atom, electronic science, and its application in radio, television, medicine, and industry.
- BERNSTEIN, J. M. *Spotlight on The Far East*. New York: Institute of Pacific Relations, (American Council). 1945. 125 pp. 40c. (30c to schools). Historical, geographical, and cultural backgrounds of countries of the Orient and islands of the Pacific.
- Bibliography of Inexpensive Occupational Pamphlet Material*. Fargo, North Dakota: Occupational Information and Guidance Service. 1945. 37 pp. Classified into four divisions: business, industry, agriculture, and home economics.
- Bibliography on Railroads*. Washington, D. C.: Association of American Railroads. 1940. 16 pp. Free. Mimeographed bibliography on the history of railroads and sources of historical information.
- BOARDMAN, C. W. *Out-of-School Youth in Red Wing*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press. April, 1945. 28 pp. Pictures conditions and problems facing a representative community following the war.
- BOSSING, N. L. AND BRUECKNER, L. J. *The Impact of the War on the Schools of Red Wing*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press. 1945. 118 pp. Effect of war on organization, services, attitudes, curriculum, instruction, and community evaluation of school program.
- Bretton Woods Agreements*. Washington, D. C.: Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System. 1944. 21 pp. Free. A comprehensible review of the monetary agreements reached at Bretton Woods.
- The Bretton Woods Proposals*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Treasury. 1945. 13 pp. Free. A non-technical discussion of the proposals for an international monetary fund and an international bank.
- BRYAN, R. C. *The Evaluation of Student Reactions to Teaching Procedures*. Kalamazoo, Michigan: Western Michigan College. 1945. 40 pp. \$1.00. A study of the student-opinion questionnaire.
- BRYAN, R. C. *Keys to Professional Information for Teachers*. Kalamazoo: Western Michigan College of Education. 1945. 44 pp. 75c. An introduction to the sources of educational literature.
- BUCK, P. S. *Tell the People: Mass Education In China*. New York: Institute of Pacific Relations (American Council). 1945. 72 pp. 25c. A condensed description of the Mass Education Movement in China and its applicability in areas of illiteracy, disease, and poverty.
- CANT, GILBERT, *War on Japan*. New York: Institute of Pacific Relations. (American Council) 1945. 64 pp. 25c. Describes the over-all strategy of the Pacific War.
- CARR, W. G. *Only By Understanding*. New York: Foreign Policy Association. 1945. 96 pp. 25c. Presents the views of national leaders on what our international relations must

be if we are to have international understanding, peace, justice, and good will. Organized education must be used in developing this understanding. To those who have charge of the educational systems of freedom-loving people belongs a large responsibility in securing the final and basic answer to the problem of international co-operation. This book suggests ways and means through which international peaceful living may be had.

Chamber of Commerce of the United States. *Education Steps Up Living Standards*. Washington, D. C.: The Chamber. 1945. 20 pp. 10c. Evidence in foreign countries revealing the close relationship between education and national economic status.

Columbia Scholastic Press Association. *Journalism Syllabus*. New York: The Ass'n., Columbia University. 1944. 152 pp. \$1.50. A course of study that lays down general concepts about public opinion and the media that influence it, writing and editing processes, mechanical processes, and school press problems.

Congress of Industrial Organizations. *Substandard Wages*. Washington, D. C.: The Congress. 1945. 28 pp. Free. Analysis of extent and effect. Argument for minimum wage of 65 cents per hour.

*Conquest*. Chicago: Santa Fe Railway. 1945. 32 pp. Free. A picture book of the Santa Fe and the men who built it. From 36-mm. sound film loaned on request to schools.

*Continuing Educational Opportunities*. Madison, Wisconsin: State Board of Vocational and Adult Education. 1945. 47 pp. Free. A description of services that is an assurance to civilian workers and demobilized service personnel that Wisconsin programs are equipped and staffed for reconversion and rehabilitation training.

CORLISS, C. J. *The Day of Two Noons*. Chicago: Ball Railroad Time Service. 1945. 15 pp. Free. The history and advantages of Standard Time.

DALZELL, J. R. *Building Trades Blueprint Reading*. Chicago: American Technical Society. 1945. Part I—142 pp. Part II—234 pp. Illus. An approach to blueprint reading without the prerequisite of blueprint drawing.

DIEDERICH, P. B. and VAN TIL, WILLIAM. *The Workshop*. New York: Bureau for Intercultural Education. 1945. 32 pp. 25c. A summary of principles and practices of the workshop movement.

DIX, LESTER. *The Montclair Conference on Workshop Planning*. New York: Bureau for Intercultural Education. 1945. 56 pp. 25c. Sponsorship, resources, techniques, management, public relations, evaluation, and follow-up of a workshop with an eye on intercultural learning.

*Dramatics Director's Handbook*. Cincinnati, Ohio: National Thespian Dramatic Honor Society for High Schools. 1944. 67 pp. \$1.50. How to teach dramatics, how to organize and manage dramatics clubs, how to produce a play—all prepared by experienced teachers for inexperienced and busy teachers.

*Education for Mutual Understanding and Friendship Between Canada and the United States*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1944. 16 pp. A statement of policy approved at a joint meeting of American and Canadian educators brought together by the American Council and the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

Educational Policies Commission. *Source Book on Federal-State Relations in Education*. Washington, D. C.: The Commission. 1945. 159 pp. \$1.50. Report states and classifies issues involved in Federal relations to education and thereunder quotes positions or recommendations of important committees or organizations that have recently studied the problem.



- El Salvador*. Washington, D. C.: Office of Inter-American Affairs. 1945. 9 pp. Free. Factual information in readable form.
- Family Life Education*. Los Angeles, California: American Institute of Family Relations. A monthly service bulletin. This issue treats on non-technical guidance in the sex problems of youth, social hygiene, war marriages, etc.
- FENNER, M. S. *N.E.A. History*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association. 1945. 160 pp. 50c. The development of professional associations that have been a moving force in the improvement of the common school during the past century.
- FIGUEIRA, GASTON. *Fiesta de Panamerica*. Forest Hills, New York: Las Americas Pub. Co. 1943. 123 pp. \$3.00 a year (6 issues). The poetry of Figueira, a poet, critic, and educator; a native of Montevideo, whose poems and varied works of prose have been translated into many languages. (In Spanish).
- From Camp to College*. Philadelphia: National Japanese American Student Relocation Council. 1945. 12 pp. Free. A leaflet concerning Japanese-American student relocation, the first impetus to resettlement out of the WRA centers. Prepared to raise a \$20,000 scholarship fund to make college possible for some of the 400 graduates of 1945.
- From D-Day Through Victory in Europe*. New York: Columbia Broadcasting System. 1945. 314 pp. Panoramic verbatim broadcasts by war correspondents and famous personages transmitted by CBS during the War of Liberation.
- General Election in Britain*. New York: British Information Services. 1945. 12 pp. Free. The end of a coalition Parliament, the significance of a general election, and the importance of the House of Commons.
- GILLIS, F. J. *The Spiritual Problems of a Teacher*. Boston, Massachusetts: City of Boston Printing Department. 1945. 16 pp. Free. An address inspiring teachers to follow the precepts of the Great Teacher in meeting classroom, administrative, personal, and world problems.
- GRIFFITH, C. R. and BLACKSTONE, HORTENSE. *The Junior College in Illinois*. Urbana, Illinois: State Department of Education. 1945. 252 pp. Progress of the junior college in the U. S. Socio-economic and educational setting of the junior college in Illinois and legal aspects of its future development. 82 Tables. 26 Charts.
- HARTLEY, LIVINGTON. *It's Up to the Senate*. New York: American Association for the United Nations, Inc. 1945. 31 pp. 10c. Long-range political and economic results of America's position pending the Senate's acceptance of the United Nations Organization.
- HEIMERS, LILL. *Consumer Chemistry*. Upper Montclair: New Jersey State Teachers College. 1945. 36 pp. 75c. Mimeo. Classified bibliography of publications and visual aids. Excellent for librarians, science departments, and counselors.
- HILTON, M. E. *Guide to Guidance*. Volume VII. Syracuse, New York: University Press. 1945. 62 pp. \$1.00. Selected bibliography of best books and articles on guidance published in 1944. Annotations on 375 titles.
- A Home Study Course in Social Hygiene*. Los Angeles: American Institute of Family Relations. 1945. \$1.00 for pamphlets; \$2.00 for course. Six lessons, practical and scientific, yet non-technical, by Paul Popenoe on parental preparation, adolescent emotions, importance of sex.
- How to Organize a Teen-Age Club*. Columbus, Georgia: Nehi Corporation. 1945. 34 pp. Free. Helpful aids on how to spark a group that has no place to go on Saturday night. Addressed to the teen-agers themselves. Also other literature on the same subject.

- How to Run a Film Library.* Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc. 1945. 14 pp. 50c. Illus. Procedures for operation, storage, maintenance, and use of a classroom film library.
- Institute of International Education. *News Bulletin.* New York: The Institute. Monthly, October to May. Annual subscription 25c. Topics of interest to educators.
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- Mexico's Role in International Intellectual Co-operation.* (Inter-Americana Series, VI.) Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press. 1945. 60 pp. 65c. Proceedings and papers of the conference at Albuquerque in 1944 under the sponsorship of the Universities of Texas and New Mexico.
- MORGAN, CARLYLE, *Bretton Woods*. Boston: World Peace Foundation. 1945. 143 pp. Cloth edition, 50c; paper, 25c. Elucidation of the highly technical and complicated provisions of the Bretton Woods Proposals.
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Publications of the Pan American Union. (Music Division). Washington, D. C.

BROOKS, CATHERINE. *Opportunities for Advanced Study of Music in the United States*. 1943. 47 pp. A classified index of courses in music offered by universities, colleges, music schools, and conservatories in the academic year 1941-1942.

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Publications of the U. S. Office of Education. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. *Education Under Enemy Occupation*. 1945. 71 pp. 15c. Authentic and official accounts of the effect of war and enemy occupation upon intellectual life written by ministers of education from eight European countries and China.

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*Wildfire* (Magazine). Dallas, Texas. 36 pp. 25c per issue; \$2.00 per year. Amateur writers may be interested in submitting prose or poetry for publication.

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*A Yearbook of Railroad Information.* New York: Western Railways Public Relations Office. 1944. 96 pp. Free. Graphic and statistical information about railroad equipment, earnings, purchases, operations, and service.

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